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SECRETARY-GENERAL'S MESSAGE TO THE CHILDREN OF THE WORLD

(For May 18th, Goodwill Day)

To-day is Goodwill Day, and the air is full of messages of friendship which the wireless stations are broadcasting : messages from the children of Wales and the replies sent to them by the children of the five continents and islands far away. The voices of the young people who speak in your name through the wireless all declare the goodwill of those who are not yet fifteen years old and their desire to work together for the good of all. For to-day is the 18th of May, Goodwill Day.

But what of to-morrow ? What are you going to do to-morrow to keep your promises ? To-morrow, perhaps you will hear of rivalries, and of disputes which separate your respective countries, of old embittered quarrels from an unhappy past which are very hard to clear away. To-morrow you may perhaps wonder, with discouragement, what is the use of working hard since your elders worked hard but are for all that unemployed. To-morrow perhaps you will meet people who will make fun of your messages of to-day : "It is all words, nothing but words," they will say. "What goodwill fine words do ?"

It is indeed true that what we want is action. Do you think, children, that to solve problems, settle quarrels, forget hatred, and to stop unemployment, all you have to do is to send out friendly messages ? You know perfectly well that, that is not so. This poor, mad world of ours, which is just hobbling along, needs more effective remedies. It needs you, young people. It is for you to restore some balance, some sense of proportion, to the world. How are you going to do it ? By study and then by action.

From to-morrow, then, you will set to work. You will work at your history, your geography, your civics, your mother-tongue, your foreign languages, and your mathematics, with a firm determination to reach an understanding of this complicated world—with its new forms of civilisation and with economic conditions which change from day to day. You will try to get a clear view of the old quarrels which poison our life, disputes between inhabitants of the same country or disputes between people of neighbouring countries. From to-morrow you will try to

exercise self-control and self-mastery: you will learn to keep calm and objective, so that you will be able to study the causes of these quarrels dispassionately.

Then, when you are grown up and you have the responsibility of taking decisions in your own countries, you will know these delicate questions thoroughly, and you will be able to examine them all quietly with the people whom they concern—friends and foes. You will know how to look for just compromises, asking only fair and equal sacrifices from the opposing parties. You know as well as I do that to settle a dispute by fighting is not the way to find a just sensible and lasting solution; on the contrary it leads only to bad feeling and to the creation of new difficulties. You don't imagine, do you, that to establish world peace, of which you hear everyone around you talking so much, you must give up your devotion to your country, your whole-hearted service for it? No. No. A thousand times No. But however brave and generous your fathers were, however great and noble your country, all is not yet perfect. Firmly make up your minds, then, to work, so that your country may be a torchbearer for humanity. You will have to fight patiently and loyally against an infinite number of relentless enemies. Shall I tell you some of these formidable foes over which you will have to triumph? There are diseases, epidemics, plagues, there are natural calamities like floods, droughts, and famine. There are misery, wretchedness, squalor, ignorance, fear, drudgery, unemployment and other things. These are enemies which must be attacked in several countries at once if you are to overcome them. There are some which are too terrible for small nations to overcome alone and you will want your fellow countrymen to help them.

That is just why the League of Nations exists. That is why it must grow stronger and more efficient. It can organise world campaigns against nature's calamities, against diseases, misery, unemployment, disorder and waste. Ask your masters and mistresses to tell you something of what the League has done and the result it has achieved.

The League of Nations wants men to fight heroically, not against other men, but against enemies such as I have mentioned. It is trying to bring men to give up war as a method of settling their disputes and to settle them by arbitration and by working together.

Children of the world, all of you who are not yet fifteen years old, the League calls you. Learn to know it. Help it to overthrow the enemies of humanity. Hard work, danger, risks, adventures, sacrifices—they are there for all of you.

STATE PLANNING AND LIBRARY MOVEMENT

BY

MR. S. R. RANGANATHA IYER, M.A., L.T., F.L.A.

The votaries of the Library Movement in our country may be interested in the following account of the way in which the library movement is linked with the Second Five Year Plan of Russia. It is based upon information that came to hand by the last Mail.

15 YEARS' ACHIEVEMENT

Modern Library Movement began in Russia in 1919. In spite of 68 per cent. of the inhabitants being illiterate, the State resolved that, by 1933-34, the ability to read and write should be the possession of every citizen. The public libraries, with their associated centres for the liquidation of illiteracy, were used as the chief lever to achieve this end.

The latest communication received, states, "The number of mass libraries has increased and quite a new network of them has grown up. . . . The number of books in the public libraries increased from 9 millions in 1911 to 124 millions in 1934. The number of readers is growing continuously reaching 15 millions in 1932" as against 120,000 in 1926.

STILL NOT SATISFIED

Nevertheless, the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. resolved at a recent meeting, that the work of the public libraries was still unsatisfactory, in many respects. "The set of books, especially in rural areas, is often obsolete. . . . The staffs are not sufficiently qualified to ensure an ideologically consistent direction of the work. There are also frequent cases of libraries being moved to unsuitable buildings."

MEASURES TO BE TAKEN

The resolution of the Chief Executive Committee indicates a number of measures for overcoming these defects. Library departments are to be formed in all the Federated Republics to organise and direct library work. Library sections are also to be formed for this purpose in all the regional and provincial departments of education as well as in the mass culture sections of the municipalities. The Peoples' Commissariates of the Federated Republics are instructed by the Central Executive Committee to organise base-libraries at the State farms to provide book service for all the farm workers. Children's libraries are to be organised in all schools. Librarians must pass a qualifying examination. By the end of the Second Five Year Plan at least 50 per cent. of the staff of the important City and Factory libraries must consist of workers with high academic and technical education. With this end in view, the number of students in the Moscow Higher School for Librarians must be increased to 400 persons. Next year 600 persons are to be accepted as students in the Library departments of the Leningard and Kharkov educational institutes. 9 new lower library schools are also to be opened in the U. S. S. R."

THE MORAL

The State planning work of the U.S.S.R. in the library sphere, as in other spheres, constitutes an experiment, on a colossal scale, in library organisation. There is no denying the fact that their achievements during the last 15 years have been remarkable. The importance which library training has acquired in the Second Five Year Plan is significant. While the political machinery and the political philosophy of other countries may not admit of a wholesale adoption of the Soviet method of carrying out an idea, the library progress of Russia and the way in which it is being achieved should certainly convince every State and no State can any longer adopt the *laissez-faire* policy in regard to its national library service, if its people are to become sufficiently well informed to keep abreast of the other nations of the world. It would be jeopardising the future of the nation if the State refuses to take the initiative in setting up a well-planned library machinery. The economic and the cultural well-being cannot be ensured any longer without a network of libraries consciously planned and efficiently worked. The little sum that the Government may have to spend extra to establish a department of libraries for this purpose will lead ultimately to real, healthy, national economy. The refusal to spare that sum will amount to short-sightedness of the gravest kind.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

BY

MR. S. VISWANATHA IYER, B.A., B.T.,

There was a time, when it was believed, that a boy's mind was a blank sheet of paper, on which we may write what characters we choose. Psychologists hold that the character of a person is to some extent derived, not merely from his parents, but also from his stock. Now, this theory of character inheritance is the source of many a surprise and many a disappointment. Education means the drawing out of the mental and moral qualities of a child. Strictly speaking, the education of a child begins from the moment of his birth. As a child, he is all ear and eye to receive impressions from the outside world and these impressions go to make up his character. Then comes the period of school education, which is no doubt a period, when he receives a good deal of the sum total of the education which he receives in his whole life-time. Hence, nothing would be more demoralising than to separate either the home from the school, or the school from the home, in the sphere of character education. Both are necessary and one should supply the omission of the other.

Sweet home is the receptacle of all the gentler virtues in man. It is here that all the softer feelings and emotions develop. It is here that the heart grows more and more intensely deep. It is again the family, more than the learning, that makes the moral man. Religion is no doubt taught by preachers and books, but one finds the highest religion in the saintly image of his mother. In fact the whole life of man is one long sermon upon religion, teaching him the one lesson,

‘Just are the ways of God
And justifiable to men’

His sufferings, the ups and downs of his life, all these are so many educative forces that make his character.

A parent can teach his children, the simple moral precepts, in order to elevate the morals of his young ones. He could as well attend to his children's object of curiosity. He could teach them the hygienic conditions of life and could give the good sunshine and air, the two tonics of nature.

Education means, as has already been pointed out the unfolding of all the faculties of the mind and the body. How far this objective is to be fulfilled in our schools, is our main concern. We do not want the Spartan type of education, which was mainly the education of the body, unaccompanied by the education of the mind. The Spartan soldier, whose mental and moral faculties lay dormant, was a living machine. Again, we do not want the cultural aspect of education of Athens, the city of the olive branch, resulting in the production of the prodigies in Arts and Letters, men like Plato and Socrates. It was this cultural aspect of the political education in Athens that enabled her to produce men like Pericles and leave the modern world the heritage of ideal democratic institutions. Our own aim in the past had been the attain-

ment of the 'High ideal of perfect mastery over senses.' A pupil was to sit at the feet of his Guru. He had to shun sensual pleasures of all kinds and lead a simple and austere life. This form of education resulted in the creation of a nation of philosophers, whose chief business in life was to meditate upon 'the origin of the universe and the problem of existence.' The speculative tendency created a race of thinkers and religious teachers like Buddha and Mahavira. But when religious speculation became all in all, the fate of the nation was sealed. The nation of ascetics found themselves unable to defend themselves against the onslaught of the foreigners. So, what is worthy to aim at would be a rich character to suit the present day conditions, both in and outside the class-room.

It should be the aim of teachers to make the life of the school, in every activity and relation, count for moral education. The aim should vitally affect not only the teaching of every subject and the treatment of every problem of discipline and training, but also the general atmosphere and spirit of the class-room of the school. There are various factors for doing so.

Within the class-room, the personality of the teacher is at the root of all character education in the school. The teacher's voice, speech, hearing and dress; the teacher's poise, self-control, courtesy, kindness; the teacher's sincerity, ideals and attitude toward life are inevitably reflected in the character of his pupils.

Reverence is vital to morality. Whatever quickens in children the feeling of dependence on a Higher Power; whatever arouses in them the sentiment of worship or fills them with admiration of true greatness, promotes reverence. There is no subject studied in school which, reverently taught, may not yield its contribution to this sentiment.

Self-respect, which is also fundamental to moral development is engendered in a child when he does his best at tasks that are worth while and within his power to do well, with proper recognition by teacher and school-fellows of work well done.

The corner-stone of a self-respecting character is principle—the will to be true to the right because it is right, whatever the consequences, to act 'with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right.' The essential difference between principle and mere self-interest should be vividly brought home to each child.

Each school study has a specific moral value. The living voice of the teacher in the class-room brings the pupil in communion with the great men of the past and gives him a clear understanding of the books which are the repositories of knowledge. The studies in whatever branch they might be, have their value not merely in that they make the pupil's character on sound principles. As Bacon tells us, History makes men wise, Poetry witty, Mathematics subtle, Philosophy deep, Logic and Rhetoric able to contend. The study of Nature and of Natural Sciences gives the pupil an understanding of his own environment, but History and Literature have their influence on the spiritual side of his nature.

It is said of history that it shows 'the present in the light of the past. It is the systematised story of the spiritual and temporal experiences and ex-

periments of mankind." It was said by Bishop Stubbs that by a study of the experiences of the past, we are enabled, to judge correctly the tendencies of our own times and to make proper decisions for the future. Though this may be said to be too much to expect from the study of history, it is indisputable that history socialises and humanises its students making them more tolerant of those whose views are not theirs and arousing in them admiration for heroism and social service.'

O Literature, which is said to be the root and branch of all the arts and sciences, it is needless to say that a study of literature builds up sound character. It incarnates the best that man has thought and felt. We can enter into the soul of its creators. It quickens the mind and enlarges the character, deepens and purifies the source of enjoyment, and increase the power of man. It possesses fineness and force, substance and form, art and power. It unites the principles of beauty and music. It is the educative tool for fundamental Reasons. It is the greatest amount of wealth.

A few words on the education which a boy receives outside the classroom would not be superfluous. The spirit of the class-room and the school—the spirit that makes children say with pride 'my class' and 'our school'—is one of the strongest moral forces. Where there exists a proper '*Esprit de corps*', the problem of discipline is largely solved. It should be remembered that it is in the company of his fellow-students that the young man finds the most stimulating environment for his development. 'In the warm and congenial atmosphere of companionship, ambition, honour, loyalty and sympathy flourish, without which the spirit of youth would be ill-nourished'. Moreover the strongest ties of friendship are formed early in youth and the influences of comradeship and leadership continue to make themselves manifest not merely during the period of the student's school life, but later also.

Viewed from this perspective, the value of hostel life is seen to be immeasurable. Here a student is always in the company of his fellow students, except when he is under the eye of the teacher in the class. Life in the midst of the society of friends, who are willing to appreciate fair conduct, but who will be among the foremost to flout at him for any misbehaviour, is the best tonic for the innocent self-conceit which the pardonable partialities of home may readily feed. It is here the qualities of self-reliance, respect for one's fellows, and the spirit in which to take rebuff or defeat, are fostered.

The modern ideals of education are self-realisation and social service and these ideals are best achieved by the life in the hostel.

The child should early gain the idea of social membership. The truth that co-operation and unselfishness are essential to true social living should be made real and vital. This truth is brought home through 'group work' where the work of each is necessary to the work of all; and through the feeling in a school or class that the honour of all is in the keeping of each.

In this connection, we ought not to forget the influence of games. They have a direct influence on the making of character. It is unquestionable that games of a school give an apprenticeship to real life, such as no other school pursuit can give. In no other study or occupation is a pupil at such close grip with opposing human nature and in no other occupation is there so great a demand for self-control, patience and firmness, good temper and hearty goodwill.

No person has a fully developed moral character until there has been a transfer of the seat of authority from without, to within himself ; a moral man obeys himself. Effective means to this end are best secured by means of school excursions and other social activities. If the excursions be to a historic place, the sight of the relics of the past rouses the student's imagination and brings before his mental eye, in flash after flash, pictures of the scenes over whose monuments he stands. Or, if the excursion be to a natural scenery which lies in all gorgeous splendour, that again has its influence upon his character. In the famous lines of Wordsworth :

' One impulse from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good
Than all the sages can.'

It is thus seen how far character is made by proper education. Character knows no creed or caste. Saint Nandanar was a Pariah ; yet he was a great moral force. Gladstone was a wood-cutter by caste and yet he became the greatest statesman. As Emerson has put it ' It is the greatest reserved force.' It is the co-efficient of human being and the reflection of God in man.

Indeed, it is in the making of character that the value of real education lies. The dull and the dry facts which one has to cram for the purpose of examination are deservedly forgotten very shortly after the examination is over. That which a student carries with him when he leaves his ' Alma Mater ' is really a character properly developed which enables him to steer through the stormy seas of life's perils till he reaches the destined goal.

This means a change of heart in superintendent, supervisor and teacher, as to what is of most worth. Our schools must be made into social institutions. Co-operative enterprises must be encouraged. The curriculum must be changed from extrinsic to intrinsic subject-matter. Activities that challenge the deepest interest and the highest powers of the children should be sought. Teachers should seize every opportunity to build in the pupils a sense of responsibility for group values. A sense of duty well-built is a great moral asset. Duty and honour should be reinforcements. Text-books with set lessons will not set right the matter. This may be done with older children. But great care is to be taken in actual moral living. Zestful social living under the guidance of those, who on the one hand appreciate social moral values and on the other love children and know how to lead them should be encouraged. This must be our main reliance in character education.

A SURVEY OF THE WORK OF THE HEALTH SECTION OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

BY

DR. MADSEN,

President, International Health Committee.

The Health Committee of the League of Nations is holding this week its twenty-seventh session ; it is just thirteen years ago that the Health Organisation of the League was established. The present Committee consists of twenty-four members, a number of whom come from overseas countries, (Algeria, Canada, China, Brazil, Japan, the United States).

During its present session, which will last about a week, the Health Committee has to consider a variety of subjects and come to a decision as to the technical advice which it will give to the Council of the League of Nations concerning the conduct of the Health Organisation's work.

Singapore Bureau. It will deal with the work of the Health Organisation's Eastern Bureau in Singapore, an institution established in 1925 to act as a centre for the collection and dissemination of information concerning epidemic diseases in the Far East. This Bureau receives from all the Far Eastern countries immediate information by cable concerning the prevalence of the important epidemic diseases and distributes it at once to all countries by wireless and cable. Ten national broadcasting stations in the Far East transmit the Bulletins of the Eastern Bureau regularly every week. These bulletins are picked up by health administrations, by port health officers and by officers on ships at sea. The Bureau is thus an important agent in the campaign against such epidemic diseases since no measures of prevention can be applied properly without a knowledge of where and when disease is occurring.

The budget of the Singapore Bureau is made up of special contributions from a number of the Far Eastern countries which are particularly interested in its activity, plus a larger contribution from the budget of the League itself.

There is a similar centre for the collection and distribution of information concerning infectious diseases at Geneva.

Permanent Commissions: The Health Committee will review the work of its permanent commissions, on Biological Standards, on Malaria and on Opium.

The Permanent Standards Commission, which has been carrying on its work since the very beginning of the Health Organisation, has adopted some sixteen international standards for biological preparations in use in practically every country in the world. These biological preparations include vaccines, sera and such preparations as digitalis, thyroid extract, insulin and salvarsen. The international standards are kept at one or more national labora-

tories acting as central laboratories on behalf of the Health Organisation ; samples of the standards, preserved in these laboratories, are sent out to the different countries on request. These central laboratories also receive samples of the national standards for testing against the international standards. Just as it is important to preserve in some central place a standard unit of length, constructed in such a way as to ensure against deviations in measurement, it is important that international standards for biological preparations should be preserved just as carefully.

The work of the *Malaria Commission* of the League is of interest to every country where the disease prevails. This Commission is in touch with workers in every malarious country ; it is concerned with the most important problems relating to the disease, its sources, methods of transmission, treatment and of course the campaign of prevention. One of the most important tasks is to assist in providing opportunities for the training of medical officers who are to be employed in the different countries in the campaign against the disease. Like several other important diseases, Malaria displays different characteristics and behaviour according to the country in which it occurs. Measures of prevention which are useful in one country may not be so in another ; it is only from a study of all the different manifestations of Malaria that the underlying principles of prevention can be deduced. For several years the Health Organisation of the League has been assisting in providing training for malariologists ; in the past these Malaria Courses have been held at Hamburg, Paris, Rome and London. During the present year they are being held in Rome and at Singapore—in Rome for malariologists from European countries, and at Singapore for malariologists from various countries in the Far East. On April 30th, 28 students from nine countries started work on such a course at Singapore. The Health Committee's work in respect of malaria is many-sided but it is not necessary for me to go into further detail.

The work of the Health Committee's *Opium Commission* is highly technical and for that reason cannot be of great interest to the general public. It is enough to say that the Health Committee from the beginning has been giving its advice to the Governments signatory to the various Opium Conventions concerning the preparations containing opium and certain other narcotics which should be brought under control. The Health Committee co-operates with the various other international bodies set up by the Conventions or by the League, in limiting the abuse of these potent drugs. It is about to engage in a study of opium-smoking and it has recommended a standard method of determining the morphine content of samples of raw opium without which the application of the latest international anti-opium convention would be difficult.

Advice to Governments : The League of Nations is an association of Governments—any Government is free to ask the League for assistance or co-operation in any work in which the experience of other countries may be of benefit. A number of Governments have applied to the League for such co-operation in the field of health, and during its present session the Health Committee will consider and advise on three such requests.

In 1929 the Government of the Republic of China asked the League for assistance in organising its public health services, its hospitals and its system of training doctors. Since that time, at the request of the Government, a representative of the League's Health Organisation has been stationed at Nanking, a new system of port quarantine has been organised, a central technical

health service has been set up, facilities for training health officers, sanitary inspectors, nurses and mid-wives have been perfected, and an active campaign against cholera conducted. The Government of China has been able to benefit from the advice of foreign experts selected by the League, and this co-operation with the League in health matters has now been extended to many other fields such as agriculture, education and economics.

When the Government of *Czechoslovakia* decided to improve the sanitary services in two of its less developed provinces—Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia—it too appealed to the Health Organisation. This work has been going on for three years, and the Government has now requested that it should be extended for another period.

There are areas in *Rumania* where maize is the chief food. The people in these areas suffer from Pellagra, a serious debilitating disease supposed to be due to a diet which lacks certain necessary elements. That disease is also known in certain parts of the United States and in other countries. The Health Organisation of the League is co-operating with the Government of Rumania in a study of the disease and in the trial of a method of prevention. In one of the Rumanian villages where the disease is most common, a wheat-bakery has been established and the people are being supplied with whole-wheat bread to replace a part of the maize which they ordinarily consume. Should the usual number of cases of pellagra fail to develop, the method may be extended and if generally successful, may point the way to the prevention of the disease not only in Rumania but in many other countries.

In *Greece* some twenty-five officers are now being trained in modern public health work at the Athens School of Hygiene. A law was passed this year forbidding the appointment of health officers anywhere in Greece who had not received a degree from that school or from a similar school in other countries. The creation of the Athens School of Hygiene was the direct result of a request from the Greek Government to the League in 1929. The Health Committee, after a proper study of health conditions in Greece, recommended a plan of sanitary reorganisation which was adopted by the Greek Government. That plan is being applied gradually with the co-operation of the League's Health Organisation—the School of Hygiene is only one of its results.

An International Centre for the study of Leprosy was opened on April 21st this year at Rio de Janeiro. The centre has been placed under the auspices of the League by the Brazilian Government whose generous offer was accepted by the Council of the League. The Governing Body of that Centre is composed of the members of the League's Health Committee. It is hoped that experts in leprosy from various countries may work in the Centre where many facilities exist. If nothing more is accomplished by the Centre, it will at least favour the exchange of national experience and information, and it is hoped that it may add considerably to our knowledge of the disease and hence to the application of measures needed to combat it.

The Health Committee will study the reports received from nine *institutes of hygiene* in as many different countries, on studies they have been carrying out on behalf of the Health Organisation. These are of special interest to rural districts; they concern the causes and prevention of typhoid fever, the cost of public health work organised according to different methods, the

means of preventing fly-breeding, and the public health aspects of milk. The results of these studies should be of assistance to every public health office.

The Health Committee will also discuss and adopt a *programme of work* for 1934, 1935 and 1936, the length of its term of office (a new Health Committee is appointed every three years and the present one was appointed last January).

The need for international collaboration in health matters was felt as early as 1851, when the first International Sanitary Conference was held. Progress was almost nil until 1893 and it was not until 1921, when the League's Health Organisation was established, that international health services of every country have an agency through which co-operation is made easy, and they are utilising that agency to an ever-increasing degree. In the short time at my disposal I have been able to mention only a few of the subjects which have been taken up by the Health Committee, but I hope I have said enough to make you realise that in health matters international collaboration has become firmly established to the lasting benefit of the people who inhabit the four quarters of the globe.

THE S. I. T. U. PROTECTION FUND

LIST OF MEMBERS (continued).

- 1122. Mr. D. N. Durairaj, Asst., P. M. High School, Sawyerpuram.
- 1123. „ K. P. Doraiswami Pillai, Asst., M. High School, Gudiyattam.
- 1124. „ R. Swaminatha Iyer, Asst., M. High School, Cuddalore N. T.
- 1125. „ N. Ganesan, Asst., St. Joseph's High School, Cuddalore.
- 1126. „ D. Thiruvengkatachari, St. Joseph's High School, Cuddalore.
- 1127. „ P. V. Ganesamurti, Physical Training Instructor P. S. High School, Mylapore, Madras.
- 1128. „ S. Sivaraman, M.A., L.T., Asst., M. High School, Salem.
- 1129. „ V. Ethirajalu, Asst., Big Bazar St. Higher Ele. School, Coimbatore.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

A Summary of the Tenth Quinquennial Review of Education in India 1927-1932.

The review of 1927-1932 is prefaced by the remark that, unfortunately, the high promise which was held out five years ago has been far from fulfilment, and much that is recorded in the Review will appear disappointing. Economic distress, far exceeding in magnitude and intensity even that experienced in the post-war years, has intervened; expenditure has been cut down in all directions; the pace of expansion has retarded; political life has been disturbed; communal bitterness has been accentuated. This sad state of affairs has been brought into prominence in provincial reports.

The times are critical; great and far reaching schemes of political advancement are in the making. The educational systems of India need to be recast and adjusted to the requirements of new conditions. India will need all that her schools and Universities can give. It is for her schools and colleges to provide suitable and inspiring training for those who will be expected to take a leading part in moulding the destinies of the India of to-morrow. India needs an educational policy, which can be adapted to changing conditions and will be strong enough to withstand the strain alike of rapid expansion and of financial curtailment.

SCHOOLS AND PUPILS

The times have been so abnormal, and the conditions at the end have differed so vitally from those at the beginning of the quinquennium that the figures for each of the five years are of importance.

	Institutions.	Pupils.
1927-1928	254,724	11,775,222
1928-1929	258,018	12,166,104
1929-1930	260,946	12,515,126
1930-1931	262,068	12,689,086
1931-1932	257,792	12,766,537

The rate of increase in the number of institutions was thus comparatively uniform during the first 4 years of the quinquennium. Then, all of a sudden, an annual increase of between 2 and 3 thousand schools was replaced by an actual decrease of twice that number. The figures indicate both the magnitude and the abruptness of the decline. It is significant that in spite of a reduction of over 4,000 schools in place of an increase of 3,000 schools there was actually an increase of over 77,000 pupils during the last year of the quinquennium. In other words the development of the better schools outpaced the elimination of the weaker schools. The abruptness of the decline suggests, however, that this measure of consolidation was dictated by financial necessity rather than by any premeditated change of policy.

In the table classifying schools according to management it is shown that there has been an increase of about 8,000 in the number of institutions managed by local bodies as against an increase of about 5,000 in aided institutions and a decline of about 2,000 in unaided institutions.

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

Whereas educational expenditure of all kinds was increased approximately by seven crores in the quinquennium of 1917-1922 and by rupees six crores in the quinquennium of 1922-1927, the increase during the quinquennium under review dropped to Rs. 2.6 crores.

It is argued that if we bear in mind the phenomenal increase in the number of pupils during the quinquennium of 1922-1927, the additional income from fees amounting to about a crore in 1927-1932 does not compare unfavourably with that of about one and a half crores in the previous quinquennium. Local bodies have increased their educational expenditure by rupees seventy-two lakhs as against Rs. 118 lakhs in the previous quinquennium. On the other hand, the additional contributions made by Government declined from Rs. 291 to Rs. 52 lakhs. There was also a serious drop in the amounts collected from "other sources".

The quinquennium under review, like that of 1917-1922, has been a period of great financial strain, but for reasons diametrically opposite to those which obtained ten years ago. Low prices have had even more unfortunate effects than did the high prices of ten years ago. Parents, especially those belonging to the agricultural classes, have found it more and more difficult to support the education of their children; and provincial Governments, with their depleted revenues, have had to contract seriously their financial support of education.

The annual expenditure figures show the suddenness of the reaction. In the early years of the quinquennium, the amount of additional support average about Rs. 1 crore, but in the final year there was an actual decrease in expenditure by more than a crore of rupees.

The most notable feature is the continuous and almost unchecked progress shown by Madras, which recorded an increased expenditure of Rs. 1.12 lakhs in 1927 and one of Rs. 1.15 lakhs in 1932.

As was to be expected, money has been saved mainly by a largely reduced expenditure on buildings, the amount having declined from Rs. 277 to Rs. 181 lakhs. The only other item which shows an actual decrease in expenditure is that of training schools. This is scarcely the direction in which economy should have been effected. The small additional amount spent on inspection is an ominous sign of reduced efficiency.

VARIATIONS BETWEEN PROVINCES

It has been suggested that there is much variation in the rate of progress and in the measure of financial support in the several provinces. Madras has the highest percentage of both boys (9.5) and girls (3.1) at schools the total male and female population respectively. At the other end of the scale is the recently constituted province of Bihar and Orissa where the percentage of boys at school to the total male population is lower than in any other province except the Central Provinces and where the percentage of girls at school to the total female population is lower than in any other province. Bihar Government contributes less per head of the school population than does the government of any other province except Bengal. More and more is the gap,

wide enough already, being widened between progressive and backward provinces.

In the pre-reform days before 1921, when the Government of India played a prominent part in financing education and in defining educational policy, these financial inequalities were lessened to some extent by subventions from the Government of India; but with the steady growth of provincial autonomy, the poorer provinces have had to depend more and more on their own attenuated resources. Thus, in present circumstances, there must necessarily be a grave lack of uniformity in the speed of educational advance throughout British India, especially in primary education and the removal of illiteracy.

Since the time when in 1921 the Government of India divested itself of its control over education, each province has tended to go its own way and to develop its own peculiar characteristic features; and this tendency will doubtless be developed still further.

There are variations (1) in the general scheme of school classes, and in nomenclature by which each of these classes is known; (2) in the length of the courses culminating in the matriculation examination which is by no means uniform in the provinces, and (3) in the policy regarding the use of the vernacular medium of instruction and the stage at which the study of English as a subject should be introduced in Anglo-Vernacular or English schools.

The main points of difference in the provincial systems lie (1) in the neglect or encouragement of vernacular schools, (2) in the extent to which segregate schools are encouraged for the accommodation of children of particular communities and (3) in the general organisation of schools.

Wide distinctions have also arisen between provinces in University system. Until the period of the war universities in India were confined to the five old-established universities of the affiliating type. Within recent years a large number of new universities of varying types have been created.

Although there is a pleasing variety of experiment, it is observed that these are not without some disconcerting features. The rapid growth of provincial particularism is calculated to develop a spirit of inquiry and initiative, but should not be carried to excess. It is scarcely conducive to the right development of education in India that some parts of the country should be making rapid strides, while others, as a result of their poverty, have not even the opportunity of making any appreciable advance. Provinces are also becoming more and more exclusive in their activities, and the experiences of one province are not readily available to other provinces. A rigid and narrow provincialism is a danger to proper development.

GOVERNANCE AND ADMINISTRATION

The provincial exclusiveness mentioned above would have been counteracted had the warnings contained in the report of the previous quinquennium been heeded. The need for some central body which can discuss matters without interfering unduly with the autonomy of the provinces has persistently been emphasised. With the transfer of power to provincial governments there was noticeable in them the inclination to treasure their new-

ly won freedom from distant control and to regard any action on the part of the Government of India as an act of trespass on their preserves. But, however, the Government of India in its desire to assist provincial governments constituted in 1921, a CENTRAL ADVISORY BOARD. This might have been of real assistance to ministers in framing a policy for the expansion and the betterment of education by giving advice informally on complex problems submitted to it. But as a means of retrenchment the Central Advisory Board was abolished in 1923 and thus in the words of the Review 'the Central Government has ceased to exercise any influence over education in India except in those areas in which it possesses direct authority'.

The Hartog Committee could not accept the view that the Central Government should be relieved from all responsibility for the attainment of universal primary education. It held the view that the Government was concerned directly with the educational qualifications of the electorates for the Legislatures and was therefore interested in taking steps to ensure compulsory primary education throughout India at the earliest possible moment. The Committee was emphatically of the opinion that the Central Government should devise means whereby those provincial governments, which are not in a position to meet the cost of developing compulsory education might be given aid from Central revenues. The committee also advocated an enlarged sphere of influence by the central government through the agency of a Bureau of Education.

The Government of India have been impressed by the force of these suggestions, which have been forwarded to provincial Governments for their opinions and advice. The response received from the provinces has been distinctly favourable, and there is a clear indication that a spirit of aloofness and exclusiveness is giving way to a keen desire for increased co-operation and interchange of thought and experience. Unfortunately, the financial stringency has been such that the revival of the proposed Board and Bureau of Education has not yet been finally settled and may still be described as being 'under consideration'.

The preparatory step has already been taken. The Educational Commissioner in April 1931 was divested of his duties as the Superintendent of Education, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara and a special officer was appointed as the Superintendent.

Welcome action has been taken by the Central Government in the formation of five year programmes of advancement in many of those areas under their direct control. But even the fulfilment of these programmes will not do much more than restore in better form what had been taken by means of retrenchment in the previous quinquennium.

It is observed that provincial reports contain no account of an attempt to strengthen the headquarter staff; in some provinces, indeed, there is evidence of even a reduction in their efficiency.

With regard to inspection practically all provincial reports refer in serious terms to still further reduction both in the quality and in the quantity of inspecting staffs. In Madras however further efforts have been made to improve the efficiency of the inspectorate.

LOCAL BODIES

After giving a brief summary of the development of local self-government in relation to educational administration the report expresses regret that most of the defects discussed in previous reports have been perpetuated during the quinquennium. There is constant reference in the provincial reports to a faulty distribution of schools, to the fact that in one year large number of schools are started and that in another year equally large number of schools are closed, apparently in both cases without discrimination; to long delays in the payment of teachers' salaries; to the unnecessary number of transfers among teachers; to their lack of discipline and to the unfortunate influence which many of them bring to bear in local elections; to wasteful extravagance; to the appointment of untrained and unqualified teachers when trained teachers are available; to communal and local dissensions; to grave irregularities and neglect of the rules.

In respect of the educational services it is observed that many of the defects have been due very largely to the cessation of recruitment to Indian Educational Service and, still more, to the long delay in substituting anything in its place.

Towards the end of the quinquennium however, arrangements are made in most provinces for the constitution of the new service. (Following on the recommendations of Islington Commission it was decided that 50 per cent. of the total strength of the Indian Educational Service except in Burma should be filled by the recruitment of Indians.) At the end of the quinquennium there were 92 European and 83 Indian men and 16 European and 3 Indian women remaining in the superior educational service in India.

THE LEGISLATURES AND EDUCATION

The Central Legislature has continued to evince keen interest in Educational matters. The publication of the Scheme Committee's report gave rise to important debates in the Assembly, as the result of which two resolutions were passed. The first resolution related to the steps to be taken to provide compulsory physical training, games and drill for Indian boys attending schools and colleges between the ages of 12 and 20 and to provide and encourage the use of miniature rifle ranges. The second resolution (1930) recommended that "early steps to be taken to examine the present system of education in India with the object of remedying the defective character training of the system, as emphasised and brought to public notice by the Indian Sandhurst Committee with a view to the removal of these defects in the system for the purpose of providing a steady flow of really first class material for recruitment to the public services, including the services of defence."

Provincial reports are said to have spoken hopefully of the continued interest taken by the several Legislatures of India in matters educational.

UNIVERSITIES

A brief retrospect is given of the Universities. The attempts of the Government of India to grapple with the problems of University since the Universities Act of 1904 have been traced.

There are now in India eight universities (Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, Patna, Nagpur, Andhra and Agra) which are of the affiliating type ; and there are ten (Benares, Aligarh, Dacca, Allahabad, Lucknow, Rangoon, Delhi, Hyderabad, Mysore and Annamalai) which are to a greater or lesser extent of the unitary type.

The percentage of expenditure from Government funds on Universities and degree colleges during the year 1931-1932 was 8.98 to the total expenditure on education from Government funds. The enrolment in universities was 105,238 in 1932 against 93,741 in 1927. It is observed that the University system is still overburdened by an excessive number of students, often with inadequate qualifications.

AFFILIATING UNIVERSITIES

Many efforts have been made to improve the condition of the affiliating universities. Relief has been given in certain cases, especially in Calcutta and Madras, by the creation of new universities within their original sphere of jurisdiction. In many instances the constitution of the governing authorities has been revised so as to render the university more responsive to public opinion and also to give more scope and responsibility by means of academic authorities to those engaged in teaching in dealing with academic matters. Universities have also been encouraged to undertake teaching functions so that they shall cease to be merely examining bodies.

UNITARY UNIVERSITIES

Unitary universities in India can be divided into two categories. The first category consists of those universities which are strictly unitary in type in which all teaching of a formal nature is conducted by the University and not by colleges ; the second category consists of universities which, though they do not possess the power of affiliating colleges at a distance, have associated with them constituent colleges in close proximity. In such instances the university has considerable powers of control over its constituent colleges.

Most universities of the first category are in the United Provinces—The Universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, the Hindu University of Benares and the Muslim University of Aligarh. The view is expressed that the cost of these unitary universities is heavy, possibly heavier than India can afford. The Annamalai University which is the latest addition to the category of unitary universities comes for a share of praise in the review. It is observed that this university has made praiseworthy efforts to render its teaching more efficient than usually obtains in India.

In the second category of unitary universities come the universities of Rangoon and Delhi.

FUTURE PROSPECTS

The report takes stock of the present position of the universities and examines the prospects of future development. The following extract from the Punjab University Enquiry Committee's report is quoted in respect of the unitary type of university "the unitary type of university has been most generally adopted in the world because of its obvious advantages. It appeals

to the civic pride of great centres of population and in consequence, has often been the recipient of large benefactions; it offers the best means of correlating examination with teaching; its organisation can provide resources of teaching which are not easily available in separate self-contained colleges. Because of its unity of purpose its constitution need not be cumbrous. Its teaching function is much less subject to the incubus of burdensome administration, which oppresses universities of the affiliating type. It has also the advantage of simpler organisation in faculties and departments, escaping the friction which is inevitable in the affiliating system."

While the above conclusions point to the suitability of the unitary type of university for Indian conditions, the report observes that unitary universities in India have not been successful in affording relief to the already overstrained affiliating universities. The defects pointed out are the danger of power passing to the hands of a small clique, and if the universities are located in small centres, aloofness from the wider currents of public life, and wasteful overlapping and duplication. The main criticism levelled against unitary universities is on the score of expense. The main causes of the high expenditure are pointed out to be unregulated competition, overlapping particularly in the domain of science and in making provision for ambitious schemes of higher education and research. The freedom exercised by teachers of the university over academic matters is mentioned as a contributory cause for the reason that they sometimes trespassed into the domain of finance by making proposals of purely an academic matter at first sight but with financial implications.

The solution offered for checking the evils is the establishment of a Federal type of university. The attempt made in 1904 to tighten up the conditions of affiliation are not found to be enough. Care should be taken before granting affiliation to a college to provide that reasonable conditions of efficiency are observed but it does not follow that these conditions shall necessarily be maintained. In case of deterioration the only possible corrective is withdrawal of affiliation which is too drastic a measure to be taken. The suggestions made for improvement are efficient inspection and effective control of the university over appointments in constituent colleges.

SCHOOL FOUNDATIONS

The school foundations have been examined with a view to checking the influx of pupils unfitted to benefit by University instruction. It is found necessary to reconstruct the whole system of school education. A re-grouping of several stages of education each with a unity of aim and objective is suggested. It should not be necessary (as so often happens) for pupils to be obliged to attend schools of a higher grade in order to attain the objective of a lower stage of education. For example, pupils often have to attend middle schools in order to complete their primary education, while boys proceed to college after having passed Matriculation in order to complete their school education.

The primary course should be of sufficient length to enable pupils to obtain that modicum of knowledge which their parents desire and which would give them a firm grasp of literacy. There should be no necessity for them to pass on to a higher stage in order to realise their modest objective.

The present middle schools do not form a separate stage of education but are merely half-way houses along the road to Matriculation. In consequence, those who leave school at the end the middle stage have by no means accomplished the task which they set out to perform. It seems advisable, therefore, to constitute a middle or secondary course, whose object should be to provide a general education complete in itself and untrammelled by university requirements. Only those who have a bent for literary studies should prolong them beyond that stage. Those who do not possess that bent should be diverted either to practical occupations or to separate vocational instruction. It would probably be advisable to make the modified secondary course of somewhat shorter duration than the present Matriculation course and the medium of instruction throughout should be the vernacular. In consequence, many boys, who now remain at school and make many fruitless attempts to pass Matriculation would be released from their literary studies at an earlier age. The arrangement of the course would be simplified by the absence of any interruption caused by an intervening examination or by a change in the medium of instruction.

With this shortened secondary course, it would be possible to devise for those, who desired it and were suitably qualified, a higher secondary or intermediate course, free from the present complications and also from an unnecessary examination which interrupts continuity of study and obtrudes a divided purpose.

SECONDARY EDUCATION (BOYS)

(i) The drift to college and unemployment ; causes and remedies.

It is surprising that the number of additional schools during a period of retrenchment should have been approximately the same as in the previous quinquennium, a period of comparative plenty. On the other hand, the number of additional pupils is only about two-thirds of that recorded five years ago. The provision of new schools has therefore outpaced the enrolment of new pupils. Even more remarkable and regrettable is that, whereas the pace instituting anglo-vernacular schools has quickened that of instituting vernacular schools has slackened. The drift to college and to unemployment has therefore deepened.

The main cause of this drift lies in the three-class primary school. Pupils of these schools, who desire to attain the objective of primary education and to become literate, must proceed almost inevitably to a middle English school in order to satisfy their modest requirements.

The results of this drift are serious. Rural areas are impoverished ; the towns are faced by an ever-increasing tide of middle-class unemployment ; high schools and colleges are over-crowded by masses of pupils who have no aptitude for literary education ; even the primary schools in rural areas are 'Urbanised' by the necessity of employing as teachers the products of English instead of vernacular middle schools.

The first means of affording relief to town schools and of encouraging a well-devised system of rural education is the institution of five-class primary school, by which pupils would be relieved from the present necessity of leaving their homes in order to complete their primary education in un-

congenial and unsuitable middle English schools. On this firm foundation it would be possible to build up a system of higher vernacular education in rural areas, freed from urban requirements and in harmony with rural conditions, from which recruits for vernacular training institutions could be obtained. Facilities for vocational training should be made available for those, who have acquired a suitable basis of general education, in separate vocational institutions, not in vocational classes of literary schools. By these two means the present drift to high schools and colleges would be stemmed and many boys would be diverted at an earlier age to more profitable channels.

In Madras, the number of high schools in 1932 was 378, and that of Middle English schools was 174. The total remained nearly stationary during the quinquennium as, while the number of high schools increased, that of middle schools correspondingly decreased.

The lure of the S. S. L. C. examination in Madras appears to be almost greater than in other provinces, and the drift of pupils towards the high classes and colleges correspondingly greater. There is no public examination at the close of the middle stage, and pupils are admitted to Form IV according to the idiosyncracies of individual headmasters with admittedly unfortunate results. The figures show that boys who complete the middle stage whatever be their bent and attainments, tend to continue their literary studies for the purpose of appearing for the S. S. L. C. examination.

Reference is made to the presence of 'over age' pupils in the pre-matriculation classes of high schools. The extent to which such pupils are found at the secondary stage in the different provinces varies. In making calculations, pupils over 17 years of age in the class immediately before Matriculation, and those over 16, 15 and 14 years of age in the next three classes respectively, have been regarded as 'over age'. The statistics stress the need for diverting pupils to vocational and practical training. The position is critical in all provinces. The countryside is being impoverished; unemployment among the student community is growing apace; and universities are gravely hampered by large numbers of students ill-fitted for university education.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND MANAGEMENT

In all provinces, the practice of maintaining a Government high school in each district has been generally continued, except in Madras where the number of such schools is smaller while in the Punjab the number is larger than in other provinces. In the latter province it has been the policy of Government in recent years to maintain high schools in a number of backward areas in order to equalise as far as possible educational facilities between the progressive and the backward. In these two provinces also the number of high schools maintained by local bodies is larger than elsewhere.

There are in British India 596 high schools under public management and 2,205 under private management. By far the largest number of schools in the latter category are in Bengal, there being 525 aided schools and a similar number of unaided schools.

Exactly half of the 102 Government Middle English schools in British India are in the Central Provinces. A large number of schools of this type are maintained by local bodies in Bihar and Bombay, and to a lesser extent in Madras and the Punjab; 829 of these schools are under public and 3,046 under private management. Considerably more than half of those under pri-

vate management are in Bengal, 519 of which are not in receipt of grant-in-aid.

These figures throw light on the distribution of educational expenditure. A total additional expenditure of Rs. 1,23,19,220 on secondary education during a time of retrenchment does not compare unfavourably with that of Rs. 1,52,36,872 during the preceeding quinquennium, a time of comparative plenty; and an additional expenditure of Rs. 41,61,198 by Government as against one of Rs. 53,84,183 in the preceeding quinquennium is also generous.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

It has been pointed out that the introduction of the English medium of instruction in schools is being postponed in many provinces in the hope that pupils will make more rapid progress in the ordinary subjects by learning them through the medium of the language which is familiar to them, and that in consequence more time will be available for a thorough study of English as a subject. Reports on the working of this important experiment are not altogether satisfactory.

The use of the vernacular medium is much handicapped by lack of suitable literature and text-books and by the paucity of competent and well-trained teachers.

It has been observed by the Director (Punjab) that "mental development is seriously handicapped by the failure to train boys to think, owing to the fact that the greater part of their attention and time is concentrated upon the learning of English which is largely a process of learning by rote This emphasis upon English teaching has worked to the detriment of the vernaculars and has prevented their proper development. They are viewed as of minor importance in the school course, and as subjects of university study are despised. Their development has therefore been retarded; even the production of translations of vernacular literature has been discouraged."

Theory conflicts with practice. There can be little doubt that most of the disappointing results in secondary and collegiate education can be traced to the use of a foreign medium of instruction. It is a sad effect of the present system of education in these stages that, though a certain number of gifted students speak and write English with remarkable fluency, the majority are losing the power to think and to express themselves in any language. It is essential, therefore, that the present period of experiment should be extended and that every effort should be made to solve this perplexing problem.

There is evidence that the lack of suitable text-books is being remedied, but more effort is required in making available competent and well-trained teachers in the vernaculars. The suggestion that Training Colleges should insist on all graduates, except those that specialize in English, receiving Vernacular training, is of utmost practical importance.

Teaching and Teachers. The proportion of trained teachers in secondary schools has been improved and now reaches 56 per cent of the total. The position in the Punjab and Madras, in particular is most satisfactory, but that in Bombay and Bengal is deplorable.

(to be continued)

GLEANINGS

AXIOMS IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

We extract below the following from The Punjab Educational Review. This article by Prof. H. E. Palmer originally appeared in the *Bulletin* of the Institute of Research in English Teaching, Tokyo, Japan

AXIOM I.

"That a language consists essentially of units that may be conveniently termed "linguistic symbols".

The term 'linguistic symbols', first suggested by Dr. E. Sapir, is a logical and convenient one to designate not merely the words of a language, as set forth in alphabetical order in a dictionary, but also those elements that are less than words (e. g. inflexions and derivative prefixes and suffixes), those elements that are more than words (e.g. collocations, phrases etc.) and those elements that are in the nature of construction-patterns (e.g. as seen notably in substitution tables). Certain varieties of any of the above may often conveniently be looked upon as independent linguistic symbols (e.g. spring (of a watch) and spring (of water) may be considered to be two separate symbols).

AXIOM II.

"That a language may be looked upon and treated both as a "Code" the organised system of the language as exemplified by its dictionary, its grammar, and all the information and rules that can be given concerning it, and "as speech"—the sum of the activities involved in the using of the language.'

This is our interpretation of the de Saussure theory which distinguishes between LA LANGUE (a language as code) and LA PAROLE (a language as speech). This view of the nature of a language being endorsed by so many linguisticians, speech psychologists and others, and being moreover so closely in accordance with actual linguistic experiences confirmed by work among the deaf and dumb, there can be no hesitation in regarding it as axiomatic.

When a language is treated more from the point of view of a code, theory embodied in rules of translation and grammar is the chief channel of approach towards it; when a language is treated more from the point of view of its "as-speech" aspect, practice in using it as an instrument of thought is the primary consideration.

In the foregoing axiom and the appended notes the term "speech" is used in the de Saussurian sense, and not in the narrower sense of "the language as spoken".

AXIOM III.

"That, from the point of view of speech psychology, the learning of a language consists, in its essence, in coming to know the meanings of a sufficient number of these symbols ("identification" of symbols) and of so associating each of these symbols with its meaning that the symbol will immediately evoke the thing symbolized ("fusion" of symbols).'

Insufficient prominence has been given in the past to the distinction between these two phases of vocabulary learning and teaching. One of the chief and most universal defects in teaching and learning foreign languages lies in the assumption that when the learner has come to know what a given word or its linguistic symbol means, the main business of learning that word is over. Whereas in point of fact the main business is to ensure the complete fusion between the symbol and the thing symbolized by it. For the purposes of mere "identification," both the direct and indirect methods may be used with

profit, but for the purposes of "fusion" it would seem that the direct method alone is operative.

AXIOM IV.

'That, from the point of view of linguistic methodology, the learning of a language consists, in its essence, in the developing of a number of skills, some of which are primary, and others of which are secondary'.

Whereas Axiom III describes the process of language learning from the point of view of speech psychology, Axiom IV describes the same process from the angle of linguistic methodology. The former expresses, so to speak, the "strategy" and the latter the "tactics" of language learning. A further elaboration of Axioms III and IV would bring the subject out of the field of principles and procedures.

AXIOM V

'That among the Primary skills are those of hearing, and articulating in imitation of what is heard'.

As Dr Cummings has pointed out, no one is able at birth to hear any language. One has by nature a capacity to learn to hear any language. This capacity is an ability to perceive sound, and this can be developed by practice into the skill of hearing a language. Correct hearing is the first step towards correct imitating. The combination of the skills of hearing and imitating what is heard results in the power to form acoustic articulatory images, which power, in its turn, facilitates the fusion of linguistic symbols to the things they symbolize.

AXIOM VI.

'That among the secondary skills are those of reading and writing'.

They are called "secondary" because in the ordinary course of language acquisition in the most favourable and natural circumstances and conditions, the development and practice of them presuppose a certain degree of proficiency in the forming of acoustic-articulatory images.

AXIOM VII.

'That among the secondary skills are those concerned with translation'.

Translation (in the most appropriate sense of the term) is the skill of thinking the same thought successively in two different languages, or alternatively, the skill of expressing in a given language, a thought or emotion presented to us in another language.'

AXIOM VIII

'That pronunciation is not something apart from, or an accretion to a language, but an integral part of it, and is concerned (a) with the sounds of that language and (b) their distribution in that language.'

Unwritten languages (and all natural languages originated in unwritten language) have no existence apart from their pronunciation. The capacity to make all the sounds contained in the language is not sufficient; it must be combined with the capacity to use the right sound in the right place.

AXIOM. IX.

'That grammar is not something apart from, or an accretion to, a language, but an integral part of it and is chiefly concerned with the building up of sentences from their component parts in accordance with the canons of usage.

It is universally admitted to-day by grammarians that grammar is not a series of injunctions how the language ought to be used but a series of statements how the language is actually used.'

AXIOM X.

'That the more or less thorough acquisition of a more or less small vocabulary is the best equipment for coming to acquire a larger vocabulary.'

This axiom is the chief justification for the use of limited vocabularies and simplified texts. The relative importance or degree of frequency of occurrence differs enormously from one linguistic symbol to another. While some figure many times on any page of text, others are found only at extremely rare intervals. It has been estimated that 95 per cent of the running words of all ordinary English texts is made up of the 3000 most frequently occurring words, and that 30 per cent is made up of the 1000 most frequently occurring words.

I. F. T. A. ON EXAMINATIONS

The Sixth Annual Conference of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations held at Santander in Spain on the 10th, 11th, 12th and 13th Aug. 1933 passed the following resolutions regarding the practical means for the examination of the knowledge acquired in primary schools and the practical ways of selection to promote children from primary schools to different Higher courses.

1. The object of examination is to furnish the requisite elements for an adequate distribution of pupils among the different branches of human activity.

2. This distribution should be made irrespective of the social standing of the parents, (resolution of the Prague Congress) but,

- (a) With due regard to the aptitude shown by examination candidates and,
- (b) in accordance with the requirements of society.

3. This distribution of pupils ought to be delayed as long as possible and should only become final on the adolescent showing definite aptitude for this vocation.

4. Examinations may, in their various forms serve to determine :—

- (a) The degree of knowledge acquired;
- (b) Aptitude for future occupations.

5. Internal or external examinations of knowledge on the completion of school studies should be strictly confined to subjects actually studied in each school, irrespective of the method followed for the planning of syllabuses.

6. Tests carried out for the purpose of determining individual aptitude should not be limited to a single process, but on the contrary should consist in the combination of all the means of obtaining information, in the presence of the teacher (tests, attendance at vocational guidance courses, interviews with parents, prolonged observation by the school staff etc.) In this connection, the I. F. T. A. particularly recommends the reports to be furnished by special departments of vocational guidance including a medical specialist, an expert psychologist, an educator and a representative of professional organisations.

THE STANDSTILL AND THE WAY OUT.

The same conference, passed the following resolutions re: the standstill of the education for peace and the way out in the economical and political circumstances of our time.

RESOLUTION NO. 1.

The Conference of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, meeting at Santander, calls the attention of the public authorities in every country to the danger of reducing the credits assigned to teaching and educational institutions, from the point of view of the rising generation and of the future of civilisation;

And demands an increase in the moneys in accordance with the needs of the pupils;

Denounces as adversaries of the people's education all who advocate such reductions;

And appeals to enlightened minds and to the organisations devoted to the cause of the people's education in order that general action may be organised with a common aim:

TO SERVE EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

RESOLUTION NO. 2.

The Santander Conference,

Deeply concerned at the lot awaiting the children of unemployed workers and at the hardship imposed on adolescent youth as a result of unemployment;

Declares that the member associations will co-operate with the greatest possible activity in any measures taken by the public authorities or the major co-operative or cultural organisations with a view to alleviating the distress of parents and children;

Recommends the formation of social welfare centres with the object of organising recreation for the young unemployed and completing their general culture and professional training;

Is of opinion that the extension of the compulsory school-age limit to 15 and even 16 years and the institution of a system of post-school instruction for all young people upto 18 years of age would constitute the most rational means of combating the unemployment crisis and urges the adoption of such measures in every country;

Denounces, as a bellicose undertaking, any organisation of workers' settlements having as their motive the concealment of clandestine military training.

RESOLUTION NO. 3.

The Santander Conference,

Affirming the will of school-teachers to remain faithful to the principle of International Co-operation in every sphere;

Considering that such co-operation in economic matters is the primary condition of world prosperity;

Declares that teachers will endeavour, by all the means compatible with the intellectual standard of their hearers (school children, adolescents and the general public), to prove the need for this International economic co-operation;

And that they will collaborate with the major cultural and corporative organisations in their campaign against economic groups hostile to the realisation of world agreements.

RESOLUTION NO. 4.

The Santander conference,

Confirms the adhesion of the I. F. T. A. to the work of rapprochement and the pacific co-operation as defined in Article I of its Statutes;

Declares that any collaboration on the part of the I. F. T. A. is contingent upon the acceptance of this clause in the Statutes;

Appeals to all members to pursue, in all circumstances, both in and out of school, persevering propaganda in the cause of world peace.

RESOLUTION NO. 5.

The Santander Conference,

Notes that, in spite of the formal promises made during the war to combatants, no positive measures of disarmament have been taken and no guarantee of peace has been created, and that the principle of recourse to war is still recognised by the Governments;

Gravely concerned at the armed conflicts which have taken place and at the ever-growing menace of war;

Again asserts the readiness of teachers in all the countries represented in the International Federation of Teachers' Associations to take an active part in moral disarmament

and their unswerving hostility to the settlement of international disputes by the force of arms;

Urges the member associations to intensify their propaganda against war, in concert with the workers' and people's organisations which have accepted the principle of peace;

Invite its members collectively to make representations in all circumstances, to their respective parliaments and Governments, and individually in political parties philosophical and cultural societies and peace associations of every description with a view to obtaining;

Progressive, simultaneous and controlled disarmament,

The Prohibition to manufacture war weapons privately,

The compulsory referring of disputes to an International Court,

The economic and financial boycotting of parties in the cases provided for by the covenant of the League of Nations.

Expresses the wish that, in the campaign against the spirit of war and in the resistance to war in every form, the international forces of the people may be mobilised.

BOLD TRIAL BY SOVIET EDUCATIONISTS. SEX EDUCATION

'An extremely courageous experiment', says Dr. G. S. Khair of the Ananth Vidyarthi Griha of Poona, describing the Soviet system of Sex education, in the course of an article in the Mahratta.

Instruction is given in mixed classes of boys and girls and by graded stages.

"Children of twelve and thirteen are taught about the human skeleton and those of fifteen and sixteen are taught anatomy and physiology. Information about sex hygiene and about the prevention of contagious diseases is freely imparted to students. I was curious to learn the attitude of pupils during the hours of sex instruction. The director told me that in a class of forty pupils fifteen boys and twenty-five girls, information about sex diseases was being given. There was not the slightest giggle, but on the contrary, the pupils showed a sort of scientific curiosity. This result could be achieved because during the earlier years the pupils were prepared for this instruction through the study of elementary biology."

POLITICAL TRAINING.

Another remarkable feature of the Soviet System is the attention paid to social and political training for which each pupil devotes about two hours a day.

"Young boys and girls form clubs and circles for the sake of studying and discussing political, social and economic problems. They hold seminars, and read the reports of their study or work. The other activity consists of actual social work.

"I visited a Kindergarten school and there saw four girls of high school age. I wondered why they were there. The Director told me that they were pioneers who came there to organise plays and games for the small children and tell them stories about the great men of Russia. It is part of their work.

ACTIVE DAILY TRAINING IN SOCIAL WORK.

"More curious about the social activities of these people, I visited a high school one evening at eight o' clock. About fifty pupils around the age of fifteen were holding a meeting with one of the pupils in the chair. The teacher was sitting in the back rows among the pupils. The subject of the meeting was "The Liquidation of Illiteracy" The boys had undertaken this work in their district and were planning the ways and means of their future work." (From the "Sunday Times.")

TIPS-BITS FROM THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD

BY

ANGLER

THE PASSING OF A PIONEER

The late Rev. W. M. Theobald, as the first Secretary of the South India Teachers' Union in 1908, was indeed a pioneer of Teachers' Organisations in India. To those who had the privilege of hearing him deliver the Silver Jubilee Memorial Address of the S. I. T. U. at Trichy in May last year, the catching enthusiasm and the grand fatherly affection he displayed will be a fragrant memory. His is an example of an Englishman true to the ideal of bread and liberty for all, including the Indian Teacher. The passing away of this pioneer so soon after his re-union with the S. I. T. U. which re-discovered him in its 25th year of existence comes as a shock to all S. I. T. U. workers. The memorial which the S. I. T. U. should raise on his behalf must be a re-organised S. I. T. U., approximating to the N. U. T., respected alike by teachers, the public and the Government.

ORGANISATION OF THE S. I. T. U.—SOME TIPS

The S. I. T. U. being the only provincial organisation of its kind in South India must endeavour to shape itself as the N. U. T. of England. It must have a permanent register of its members in the district and local branches. It must also keep a register of schools and colleges, represented in a map to show at sight where the S. I. T. U. has not penetrated. Its President must be chosen not merely from persons resident at Madras but from the province, to give opportunities for men of ability to lead and show their worth year by year. Each year's President must be given the right to choose his colleagues for work during the year. The headquarters must be placed under the control of a full-timed Manager. Standing Committees must be formed to represent the various grades of teachers in the S. I. T. U., besides Committees or Councils for publicity, vigilance, touring and organisation and funds. Greater co-ordination between headquarters and branches must be established by calling for periodical reports, returns about membership and finances, local problems and grievances and these must be compiled into reports every year at least in full. The South Indian Teacher, being the organ of the Union, must be full of such statistics and reports of professional activities, leaving Educational topics to supplements of the S. I. T. or other Educational journals. Funds for work must be collected systematically by developing membership strength, profession Fund of the Protection Fund, and organising Teachers' Co-operative Credit and other Societies to build up a common good Fund for the Union. An outright registration fee levied on every existing member of the S. I. T. U. will not only be a test of our professional solidarity in terms of action but also bring the Union at least a few hundreds towards expenses ahead. Is it asking for the moon?

N. U. T. PROVIDENT SOCIETY

This Society, corresponding to the S. I. T. U. Protection Fund, has a membership of 89,000. Its funds amount to £4,500,000. The Society offers medical aid, sick pay, Life-insurance, thrift endowments, annuities and advances on Mortgage. All this is a side of the work of the N. U. T. during 64 years of its existence.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

The office of the Society is maintained at 47, Bedford Square, London. It maintains an official register of Teachers, since 1899. In 1907, Parliament sanctioned the formation of a Registration Council and in 1912, the Teachers' Registration Council was formed.

Admission to the registry is open to all certified teachers of all grades and classes. The idea of the registry is to establish work on a professional basis. Teachers will have a reasonable measure of self-government and will evolve self-determination both regarding standards of admission to the calling of teachers and conditions under which teaching is practised. The register is a symbol of professional unity. Membership affords professional status as distinct from fitness for a particular post. Now that the A. I. F. T. A. is contemplating to start registration and the S. I. T. U. Bill wants a Teachers' Registry, each provincial Teachers' organisation will be doing spade work if it sets about forming a registry of teachers in its area.

A TYPICAL N. U. T. CONFERENCE

The recent Brighton Conference of the N. U. T. in March last was its 64th Conference. The programme of the Conference is a study by itself. Each place which invites the Conference forms its Conference Reception Council. Delegates on arrival sign the delegates roll, and buy tickets for various functions. They tour round the place and have friend's parties for social intercourse. The meeting of the Council of the N. U. T. and the annual general meeting follow. The public sessions of the Conference then begin. The Conference is accorded civic welcome by the Mayor of the place and the President of the Education Committee of the place. The installation of the President of the year is an imposing ceremony. Then, after the presidential address, deputations from fraternal associations present greetings. Then open publishers' exhibition, meetings of women delegates, meetings of local Secretaries, Schools Sports' Council, Benevolent and Orphan Society, publicity, Higher Education, non-provided school teachers, rural teachers, provident society, etc. The end of the four days public sessions, debating and discussing live educational and professional and national problems, is marked by a demonstration and a ball. The Union Council finish work by passing the budget and program for the new year. In the words of Mr. A. J. Cumming of the *News Chronicle*, the officers were devoid of school masterishness and professional smugness and were full of breadth of outlook and vivid interest in all matters common to man. There was no dearth of executive ability, speaking talent, and business capacity and discipline. A peep into the work of the S. I. T. U. these twenty-five years will reveal that what we want is not capacity for organising but the capacity for sustained and disciplined work, devoid of superiority and inferiority complex among fellows of the same profession.

SANCTITY OF CONTRACTS

Speaking at the N. U. T. Conference at Brighton, Mr. Roscoe, Secretary of the Royal Society of Teachers referred to the following. A teacher asked to take service under a great magnate said "I will do this thing: I will teach you children, so long as there is nothing in your conduct which is unworthy of either of us." Mr. Roscoe made the following addition "so long as you have proper respect for the teachers' opinions, so long as you yourselves keep your bargains when you have made them; so long as you do not ask us to teach children to observe laws which you make and afterwards break". The entire quotation will fit very aptly in the mouth of any self-respecting teacher of the South India Teachers' Union in the existing demoralising state of service conditions under managers who would kill the souls of teachers who could hardly call their souls their own.

EDUCATION IN OTHER LANDS

The Union Government of *South Africa* subsidises provinces which have absolute control over Primary and Secondary Education to the extent of 80 per cent. pupil in average attendance. The average salary of a teacher even in depression remained over £300 per annum. What of *South India*?

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The advance of Education in *Soviet Russia* is indeed marvellous. In 1917, 70 per cent. of *Russia* was illiterate and to-day only 33 per cent. are illiterate. This has been achieved by a five year plan for Education as part of the scheme for developing a success-

ful socialistic government based upon Education and Culture. The Russian educational experiment is controlled by the Communist Party. The Education service is made up not merely of organised schools but museums, art-galleries, research institutes, theatres, the press, the cinema, and the Radio—in fact of all influences, except the home and religion. Education in Russia is not a preparation for life, nor separate from life but life itself. Hence the school is connected to industry, either to a factory or farm or other producing unit. The distinct features of Soviet Education are complete education of adults, as workers, collective social living of children in nursery schools, pre-vocational training for youth in schools, co-education, multilingual education and instruction through its own language. The revolution in Russia first synchronised with our own reforms, transferring Education to Indian Ministers. It is a tragedy that our ministers have missed the opportunities of their life-time to advance the Education of the people on account of a lamentable lack of objective and plan. They have persisted in the errors of the past with the result that Dunces the Second seems to reign in place of Dunces the First. Incidentally, it proves that political doctors are no good for educational leadership!

It is in America however that we find the determined pursuit of an educational revolution to provide knowledge and food for every American. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration of the U. S. A. (called F. E. R. A. in short) is organising the Educational recovery of America by linking adult Education with the supply of school materials, by developing the Elementary school library and reading habits, by week-day programs of religious instruction, by redirecting teaching in order to harmonise the science and practice of Education through co-operative testing programs, measuring of scholarship and improving content and methods of instruction. Education with Americans is a tool of democracy."

STATE LEGISLATION FOR SCHOOL PROBLEMS.

To save schools from depression, it is interesting to find what legislators are doing elsewhere, believing that Education is a State function. Delaware provides 88% of Educational Finance. North Carolina provides for a school term of 8 months organised and controlled by the state school commission or board. Washington has provided for 25 cents per day per boy for each day's actual attendance in the Elementary School, with an increased amount for junior and senior high schools. Indiana has stipulated that the minimum annual salary for all public elementary school teachers and high school teachers shall not be less than 800 and 1000 dollars respectively. It has also directed the re-imbursing of each school, on the basis of 1 teacher for each 35 pupils in average attendance in grades 1 to 8 and 1 teacher for each 28 pupils in grades 9 to 12, with 600 dollars per teacher. In conformity with recent tendencies in Educational legislation, Indiana has reduced the number of ex-officio members in the State Board of Education. What is the policy of our legislators with regard to school problems? Echo answers "what?"

THE "HINDU" ON SECURITY OF TENURE.

The Cochín committee's proposals, and the South Indian Teacher's comments on the policy of Protestant mission bodies towards non-xian teachers have induced the "Hindu" to come out in its issue of 29-5-34 with a weighty leader in favour of security of tenure of teachers and an enquiry into the problem of insecurity of teachers' tenure. Readers of the S. I. T. are referred to page 79 of the February number, page 208 of the April number and page 253 of the May number to gather the facts about the denominational policy coming into vogue in xian institutions, with special reference to the Bishop Heber College High School. The South Indian Teacher, on behalf of the Union, has only to reiterate the union's demand since 1924 for a committee of enquiry into the service scandals in the province, and if the Ministry of Education and the department are responsive to public and teaching opinion as voiced by the Hindu and the S. I. T. there can be no doubt about the result of such an enquiry. The S. I. T. U. may lead evidence before a duly constituted committee not only to vindicate its position but also justify its legislative programme.

OUR LETTER BOX

TEACHERS IN MADRAS WITH THE B. T. DEGREE OF THE MYSORE UNIVERSITY

Sir,

I wish to bring to the notice of all concerned the fact that owing to the repeated refusal of admission to the Teachers' Colleges at Saidapet, Rajahmundry and Trivandrum many graduates are compelled to seek berths either in the Training College of the Benares Hindu University or in the B. T. class of the Maharaja's College, Mysore. This has been a common feature for the last four or five years and many Mysore University B. Ts have been employed in schools of the Madras Presidency and in Bombay too. It is doubtful whether the B. T. Degree-holder of the Mysore University has a status equal to that of the L. T. or B. Ed. Degree-holders. At least as far as the Madras Educational Rules are concerned, there is no official recognition of degrees other than the L. T. or B. Ed. It is stated in the M. E. R. that "the Headmaster in every secondary school and at least as many teachers as there are sections in forms IV, V and VI should ordinarily hold collegiate trained teacher's certificates" and that "persons who have taken the degree of Licentiate in Teaching of the University of Madras or the degree of Bachelor of Education of the Andhra University after undergoing a course of training shall receive Collegiate Teacher's Certificate of the first, second or third class, according to the class of their degree, without further examination, on application to the Director." Now that persons holding degree other than L. T. or B. Ed. are coming in pretty large number to the field, it is time that the Department officially recognises such degrees. When the Mysore University degrees have been recognised for eligibility to appear for the I. C. S. and other Public Service examinations, there is no reason why the recognition should not be extended to the Teaching Degree of that University. It may be noted in this connection that the Cochin Government has tacitly acknowledged the equality of the B. T. degree with the L. T. by deputing batches of its teachers for training, in nearly equal numbers, to Madras, Mysore and Trivandrum. As to the intrinsic merit of the B. T. Degree a glance at the course of studies, examination papers and results will be quite enough to show that it lags behind none in point of difficulty and comprehensiveness. In fact the intensive course in practice teaching alone, during practically every working day of the training course, deserves high commendation. I would earnestly plead that the Department of Education, Madras, will accord official recognition to the B. T. degree by adding the words, "or the Bachelor of Teaching degree of the University of Mysore" after "Bachelor of Education of the Andhra University" in the Madras Educational Rules. It is for the University of Mysore and the Mysore Government to fight out the matter. Will the Director of Public Instruction, Madras, be pleased to turn his attention to the consideration of this deserving question?

B. T.

OBJECTIONS TO THE SCHEME OF CONSOLIDATION AND CONCENTRATION CONSIDERED

Sir,

The February Number of the "South Indian Teacher" devotes four articles to the scheme of consolidation and concentration of elementary schools and an onslaught is attempted to be made on it. Indeed in the press and on the platform, a number of attacks have been made during the past 4 or 5 months against the scheme. But it is significant that so far all the criticisms levelled are, according to the admissions of the

critics themselves, not levelled against the principle of the scheme but against some of the minor provisions contained in it. The critics have all of them been "Devils' Advocates" and have not considered the merits of the scheme. The objections are not however when properly considered of serious nature; on the contrary the advantages far outweigh any minor hardship which it might, if at all involve. In fact, these in themselves, it may be stated, are a strong proof of the "soundness" of the system as it is said that an exception proves the rule. It is urged that the distance fixed for the central school is too great, and that besides the natural obstacles to the way, sometimes a space of 4 miles a day will have to be traversed by the pupils in going to and fro four times a day to the school. It is forgotten that the mile distance is the maximum and that more often it may be only $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile.

Considerations of economy and efficiency cannot dictate a better course and it is possible that where thickness of population exists, schools might be located even at nearer intervals. No practical educationist will overlook the obstacles of rivers, etc., in the realignment of schools.

It is suggested that plural class teaching is no evil and that it is preferable to single full class teaching. Obviously this is not based on experience. Let facts and figures answer. The two classes of schools one under Board and one under private management are given below:—

1. (Yerragunta) Board Elementary School	I.	II.	III.	IV.	Total.
1931-32 Single teacher school.	21 12	8 5	13.	6.	= 65
Percentage in each class	51	20	15	9	
1933-34 Two teachers	12 1	7 1	7 3	15	= 41 5
Percentage in each class	28	17	22	33.	
Aided Elementary school (N. Hamemapuram)					
1931-32 Single teacher school.	8.	6.	2.	6	= 22
Percentage in each class	36	27	9	27	
1933-34. Two teachers	16 9	10	8	15	= 49 9
Percentage in each class	43	17	14	26.	

Even silent reading which is advocated in the criticism is not impossible in a single class work. Perhaps it is easier of adoption in this case.

It is also advanced as an argument that there would be wastage of Public Funds in view of the fact that central schools can be undertaken only by Local Bodies and these admittedly are more costly than institutions under private management. This is begging the question. It has been pointed out by the Author of the report that Aided schools will be encouraged wherever they are capable of undertaking the work. Further, it may be stated that in the case of Non-mission aided managements, work on a co-operative basis would be made possible, which might not have been the case before. Schools under public management will only be worked as central and junior schools where additional cost is not involved. On the other hand, such changes are stated to be justified only when additional schools or standards to provide opportunities for places hitherto denied, have to be opened. So far, therefore the scheme becomes both intensive and extensive.

Similar justification may be made for the objection against the construction of new buildings. According to the Director's circular of 1-11-1933, *pucca* buildings need not be insisted upon; but rented buildings etc., may be arranged wherever possible. According to the schemes worked out in some ranges there is actual savings in this respect, since some of the buildings used for Audi-Andhra, caste Hindu, and Girls' schools would become superfluous after amalgamation. It is also feasible to arrange in place of separate

rent paid previously for 2 or 3 separate school buildings, a larger and more suitable building separately constructed by a local person. Even if the construction of new buildings is undertaken, it will not be as a result of the schemes but as a part of the plans of local boards which have constantly as a matter of policy been making efforts to have buildings of their own. Is it not in the interests of education, desirable, even otherwise to have any well ventilated buildings in place of the insanitary, ill-ventilated ones now taken up for rent?

The difficulty of securing proper education for the depressed classes is put forth as another objection for working the scheme. This is against the declared policy of the Government which aims at securing better atmosphere for these classes by admission into general school albeit at some trouble for the time being. As the statistics from year to year show the efforts of the Government to improve their education by these means have been successful and the progress steady though slow. Further, separation is certainly against the trend of public opinion in the country at present. It would be clearly putting back the hands of the clock if separate schools are set up or continued for them unless it be as exceptional cases.

A further difficulty of having full standards which are economical to run as single teacher standards, is adduced as another argument against the acceptance of the scheme. It is easy to see that it will not be difficult to have larger standards in the higher rings as a consequence of grouping pupils of several schools together. It is, I dare say, absurd to expect mathematical accuracy in the size of classes but it is patent and certainly beyond doubt that there will be larger and more economical standards after amalgamation than before.

The figures of three schools, two public and one private where the schemes have been worked for about a year and odd may prove an eye-opener.

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	Total.
1. Board Elementary School (Hirehal) scheme						
No. 3	23	24	37	18	10	
Percentage	20	21	33	16	10	
Two years before	66	30	17	16	15	
Percentage	46	21	14	11	10	
2. Aided Elementary School scheme No. 16						
(P. Kowkuntla)	8½	7½	11½	10½	9½	45½
(3 teachers)						
Percentage	20	16	24	20	22	
Two years before (2 teachers)	9½	13½	8½	3½		33½
Percentage	31	36	22	1		

Similarly there need be no fear of vested interests of teacher-managers put to hardship since only such schools as are badly conducted will be given the option to close and this would have come about even without the introduction of the scheme.

"Never say die" ends with the peroration "children of all ages and of both sexes coming from homes where decency means nothing at all: girls from purdah, boys from the street, a mixture in which the lowest elements predominate as they invariably will where assurance and loud talk and ridicule rule the roost as they always do in a school." One stands aghast and wonders whether the writer remembers he is speaking of institutions receiving help from public funds and whether we are not living in an age of democracy..

It is unfortunate that the writers of articles have not based their arguments on facts and experience but are carried away by a vague fear of what might happen. There is a

good deal of exaggeration of minor points at the risk of minimising the larger and more vital issues involved. Let those who raise the objection of religious teaching being affected—which is the only important objection so far raised—remember that for progress and improvement of society sacrifices of minorities as well as of majorities are needed. Let them and others look well ahead to a time where we shall have large well-staffed schools which bring real value for the money spent on them, which redound to the credit of villages which serve them and bring in real literacy which is now only a shadow, because of the ill-directed system of work in which the different kinds of schools are agencies and instruments.

The passage in the "Tit-bits from the Educational World" of the South Indian Teacher of March 1934 in summing up the arguments for and against the scheme are worth quoting.

"The South Indian Teacher" as a cosmopolitan body must express educational opinion and stand for expansion through efficiency and economy. It has no need to be loyal to Catholic Missionaries or Teacher-managers or even to teachers where the interests of education require efficiency." It is hoped that all sections of the public as well will remember these words in defining their attitude towards the scheme proposed by the Government.

"An Educationist."

THE TEACHERS' BOOK-SHELF

Classified Catalogue Code by S. R. Ranganathan, University Librarian, Madras pp. XXIV and 292, Madras Library Association 1934, Rs. 4.

The present book is the fourth in the series of the Madras Library Association Publications. It was with the object of spreading the essential ideas of the Library Movement and of directing thought towards the creation of a Library Service suited to our country, the M. L. A. inaugurated its publication series in 1929. To the credit of the Association, it should be said that it has eminently succeeded in its noble aim. The first two publications—*The Library Movement*, and *The Five laws of the Library Science*—not only vitalized, but gave a new fillip to the library movement. The third book, *The Colon Scheme of Classification* gave for the first time a scheme of classification suited to the needs of Indian Libraries. The present book is only a legitimate sequel to the book on classification. It is no doubt a technical one, but it is written in the author's inimitable style which has made a dry subject exceedingly interesting. "In the present book," says Mr. W. Erlam Smith, in his foreword, "on the cataloguing of Libraries, he descends again from the general to the particular but retains that broad philosophical spirit of examination which is necessary if the minutiae of technique are not to become dully empirical."

The utility of a book of this kind to Librarians cannot easily be exaggerated. As Carlyle said, "A big collection of books without a good catalogue is a Polyphemus with no eye in his head. No librarian, however efficient he is, can render adequate service to the readers unless he has got an up-to-date catalogue. Among the type of catalogues, the most popular till recently were the Author Catalogue, and the Dictionary Catalogue. These were neither economical nor logical. Their very defects led to the new type of catalogue known as the Classified Catalogue. Enumerating its advantages, the Late C. A. Cutter observes. "One who is pursuing any general course of study finds brought together in anyone part of the catalogue most of the books he needs. He sees not merely book on the particular topic in which he is interested, but in immediate neighbourhood works on related topics, suggesting to him courses of investigation which he might otherwise overlook." To the credit of the author goes the giving of a systematic code of rules for a classified catalogue for the first time. In the words of the writer, while the number of codes for the author catalogue is fairly large and the number for the dictionary catalogue is also respectable, there appear to be few systematic and complete codes published in book form for the classified catalogue. Hence this venture.

The author has clearly realized that a true catalogue should at once act as a medium of information to the librarian as well as to the readers. "The right doctrine of a public Library Catalogue is that it should be made not from the scientific cataloguer's point of view with a minimum of indulgence for the scientific cataloguer. That the person who not only does not know but does not even know how to search should be primarily provided for." To that end he has taken considerable pains to make his cataloguing rules as simple and easy of handling to the readers as possible. He has, like other expert in the science, given up the old form of the printed catalogue.

The first eight chapters of the book introduce the reader to the form and type of the catalogue. The author agrees with Cutter in defining the purpose of the Catalogue. The object of all catalogues is the intensification of reference work. To achieve this end, a true catalogue.

- (1) should enable a person to find a book of which either.
 - (A) the author, or
 - (B) the title, or
 - (C) the subject is known;

- (2) to show what the library has
- (D) by a given author,
- (E) on a given subject, and
- (F) in a given kind of literature; and again
- (3) to assist in the choice of a book
- (G) as to its edition and
- (H) as to its character.

In brief, the catalogue of a modern library has little or no connection with the catalogue of olden days. The old idea of library being a museum is now gone to the limbo of discarded doctrines. It is no longer a museum but a work shop full of life and activity. This new view of the library has revolutionised everything connected with the library. "It has become an institution charged with the duty of converting every person in its area into its regular customer and converting the customer so well, so promptly and with such exact reference to the special needs that they would gladly keep on as customers."

This Catalogue Code of Mr. Ranganathan is planned with a view to secure his concept of a true library. According to the author an ideal catalogue has to consist of two parts—a classified special part and an alphabetical index part. In the preliminary chapters, the author traces in a lucid manner the evolution of a library catalogue and enumerates the types of entries occurring in a classified catalogue. The physical form of the catalogue with special reference to card form is discussed in detail. The transliteration Tables and the table of contractions which form the subject matter of chapters 04 and 05 are bound to be of immense value to librarians in writing out entries. Two new principles regarding the alphabetisation of entries are explicitly enunciated for the first time. The last of the preliminary chapters gives an analysis of works from the cataloguer's point of view and defines different classes of works. The definitions particularly of terms like Serials, Periodicals and composite books are sure to be of great help to librarians as well as non-librarians.

In a brief review like this it is not possible to discuss the salient features of every chapter. This much however should be said—Among the books on cataloguing, the present book being the latest, easily stands foremost. The book itself is the outcome of the author's long experience and experimenting in one of the premier libraries in India; as such every matter, even those which would be considered as trifles by others has been carefully thought out and the rules are so framed that one follows the other in a delightful logical sequence. Particular mention should be made of the fact of the author's anxiety to suit the catalogue to the needs of Indian Libraries. Search as we might in the existing literature on cataloguing it is impossible to get helpful information about the entry of Indian names. The author has made a careful study of the vagaries in the use of these names in several parts of India.

The recent tendency to break off from the tradition has also been carefully noted. In the words of the author, "The names that have been subjected to this tendency are a source of a great puzzle to cataloguers. The extent to which some English educated South Indian Hindus exercise their freedom to deal with their names as they please is amazing—Some make the patronymic or caste word the essential word in the name and subordinate all the other words—A few magnify the place-name or the house name." In fact it is exceedingly interesting to read the numerous vagaries practised by our men regarding their names. The axe is so mercilessly applied that a name is often split into two or three unmeaning groups of letters. The author has also discussed carefully the cases where the same author has changed his name from time to time. Few for example know that Panini the famous Sanskrit Grammarian is in some places referred to as Daksiputra, Patanjali as Gonardiya and Gautama as Aksapada. This chapter is a mine of information for a student interested in oriental research. There is again a separate chapter which for the first time gives a classification of the printed materials from the

cataloguer's point of view. A detailed study has been made of the various fanciful names assumed by the Indian authors and suitable plans suggested for giving them proper entries.

Another strong feature of the book is the section dealing with the periodical publications. Unfortunately, as matters stand to-day in our libraries, the periodical publications are given a treatment that is worse than step-motherly. But it is the periodical publications that form the very breath of the research activities of a community. Hence there has been a healthy co-operation in most countries and the government is facilitating the work of individual libraries and securing that accuracy of information in the Library catalogues which is so essential to the advancement of research. Such a co-operation has resulted in the production of many bibliographical aids in several countries. In fact, many of our periodical publications are relegated to the background, I am afraid, on account of lack of information about cataloguing technique. The basic difficulty standing in the way of the periodical publications being properly treated, has been that of giving a correct workable and productive definition. Such a definition has been successfully arrived at in this book, I think for the first time. The definition is followed by a series of very interesting and exact rules about the cataloguing of publications of all varieties and complexities. It is therefore not possible to adequately appreciate this section of the book. The author's zeal for rendering bibliographical service is highly praiseworthy. As he himself points out, our international civic conscience cannot long be content with the present kind of one way flow of bibliographical service.

The interest of the book to non-librarians is no less. Though technical in appearance, it is exceedingly popular in its content. The chapters on Transliteration and Pseudonyms with profuse commentaries are exceedingly informing even to laymen. The book is bound to be an acquisition both to the library of the librarian and the library of the scholar. The printing and the general get up of the book leave nothing to be desired.

K. S. Srikantan.

Learning to speak by speaking by Michael West.

Section 1. The Elements, Section 2. Guided speech, Section 3. Beginning to talk, Section 4. Free speech—(four books) *New Method Conversation Course—Teachers' Handbook*, *The Bishop's Candlesticks*, *The Ghost Train*—all by Michael West. Published by Longmans Green & Co.,

The books have been constructed on the principle of Specific practice. We learn swimming by practising swimming, reading by practising reading and speaking by practising speaking. The course consists of books I & II, each divided into two sections of four books properly so called, as well as two supplementary books, *The Bishop's candlesticks* and *The Ghost Train*.

The course is based on a study of speech vocabulary and a distinction is made between "words we speak with" and "words which we speak about," and is meant to be of special interest to those who aim at English by direct speech.

The object is sought to be implemented by two instruments viz., a scientifically graded vocabulary and a teaching method meant to give the children plenty of practice in actual speaking or twenty times as much as under the old system. It has been made out that under the old system, each pupil gets practice for only 40 seconds in a forty minutes period but under the proposed system, he can have practice for thirteen minutes.

There are some commendable features in the series which it is as well for us to note.

(1) The plan of the contents is well arranged and progresses from step to step, from the immediate experience widening out to the more and more remote, as the following will show.

Section 1. *The Elements*. The teacher's table, the school, the classroom, time, the weather.

Section 2. (Guided Speech). Description of a person, the senses, sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch, my family.

Section 3. (beginning to talk). Shops, the post office, round the town, "Safety first."

Section 4. (free speech). Vegetable, "Blood island", "escape", how to behave, how to get new words, how to learn new words, new words for nothing, fluency exercises.

(2) The exercises and the types of exercises are prescribed in order to give scope for pupils to express themselves.

The more common exercises are:—

- (a) "Ask and answer,"
- (b) "Do and say"
- (c) "Read and re-tell,"
- (d) Exercises for free speech.

(3) The Supplementary Readers have been written within the vocabulary of 1000 words, and are indeed calculated to call into play the powers of speaking and impart a dynamic bias to an otherwise static procedure in the classroom.

Apart from the remarkable features we have now noted, there are some points which require to be clarified. Dr. West advocates that some reading ability should be possessed by the child before beginning this course and recommends his *New Method Primer* as a necessary preliminary for independent study and *Reader I B* or *Readers I B* and *II* as preliminary for easy and fluent reading. It is therefore clear that the principle of Specific practice cannot be strictly and closely observed in this speech course, in as much as it implies, as a pre-requisite, a knowledge of *Readers I B* and *II*. Indeed, Dr. West cannot get away from the proposition that a speech course presupposes some preliminary reading, as a reading course must imply some preliminary speaking.

Secondly, we should like to know if there is any marked divergence, or what relationship there is, between the first thousand words in the *New Method Readers* and the first thousands words in the *New conversation course*.

Thirdly, it is claimed that "there is more really useful grammar here than in most English courses." One wishes that it were so but the continuity of exercises as well as their logical sequence is hard to follow. And it is a moot question if a grammar scheme cannot with better advantage be tacked on to a reading course than to a conversation course.*

A. S. V.

A Brief Survey of British History. By George Townsend Warner, M.A. Price 2s. 9d.

Messrs. Blackie & Son Ltd., are to be thanked for bringing forth a new revised edition of this popular book in the light of modern historical research with sixteen full page illustrations, maps, plans, synopsis and chronological table. Great stress is placed upon the sequence of cause and effect so as to exercise not merely the memory but the reason. This book serves the purpose of Text Book for class use, indispensable for Fourth and

* The reviewer has not had the advantage of a study of "On Learning to Speak a Foreign Language," the book not having been supplied by the publishers.

Fifth form boys. The new edition has been scientifically brought out to meet the requirements of High school students for the examination.

The Story of England, by Lilius Milroy (Blackie & Sons, Ltd.) Price 2s.

Because historical readers are found wanting in a panoramic treatment of English History for the use of school boys, Messrs. Blackie and Son, Ltd., have issued this book which serves an easy history of England from the earliest times to the present day, giving particular attention to social history. Moreover the period from 1889 onwards to the present day is treated in greater detail. This comprehensive and at the same time, brief treatment of the story of England, has nothing wanting in the arrangement, selection, collection and combination of the salient facts of English History. The book is entirely modern in the strictest sense of the term. It will surely serve the purpose of a Text Book for the Fourth Form Boys, and as a book of scientific assignments on each and every period of English History with minute analysis in broad outlines for the use of the Fifth Form Boys. It is a good acquisition to the study of the "British Empire." The treatment of each section is par excellence and each section is beautifully summarised to meet the purposes of the examination-going student.

A Book of English History. By Lilius Milroy and E. M. Browne. (Blackie & Son Ltd.)

Part I. From Early Times to 1603. Price 2s. 6d.

Part II. From 1603 to the end of the Great War. Price 9d.

This history book also has been thoroughly revised and reprinted to suit the present day curricula of studies, and furnished with a series of coloured illustrations of historical and educational value. The book is in two volumes intended for two years' course say for IV and V forms, well arranged and told in simple language. The aim of the authors has been to present the more important movements and incidents of history, and in connection with them, while never sacrificing chronological sequence, to give those details which young folks love. Moreover, prominence is given to biography and to social history. The treatment is highly commendable and the book is a suitable text-book for High School students in the process of mastering the facts of English History.

The Ground Work of British History. By Warner and Marten. Price 8 Shillings. (Blackie & Son, Ltd.)

This well-known text Book of British History has been thoroughly revised and brought up to the year 1932, in the light of recent historical research. The last two hundred pages, dealing with the period from the Industrial Revolution to the Ottawa Conference in 1932, have been entirely rewritten by Mr. Marten. Such a valuable revision was necessitated by the findings of modern historical research and by the happenings and developments of post-war era. But the Original plan of the book has been maintained without any alteration, namely, tracing out the main threads of British history, treating events in logical sequence by pursuing one subject at a time, and lastly, concentrating the mind upon what was the chief policy or course of action in each age.

To the advantage of students and teachers, the volume is issued in *two parts*, 5s each. Part I to 1603. Part II 1603-1932. In *three sections* 3s. each. Section I 55 B.C.—A.D. 1485. Section II 1485-1714. Section III 1714-1932.

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Composition Exercises in Elementary English by A. S. Hornby, B.A., Price 2-8 Macmillan & Co.

This is the latest book of practical exercises in Grammar mechanisms of the English language together with the structure, analysis and synthesis of sentences. Innumerable notes and exercises have been judiciously appended in an orderly logical manner. All the knotty points of grammar have been made easy for the use of junior students. The exercises contain no quotations from English literature. This book of composition exercises in Grammar will be of immense practical value to the junior class pupils.

A junior course of English Grammar and Composition. (by Marsh & Goodman). In two parts. Price 2s. 3d. each (Blackie & Son Ltd.)

This book answers completely to the latest revised syllabuses of the S. S. L. C. scheme in Grammar and composition with all the various assignments on the up-to-date lines. The two volumes contain a graduated and systematic course of lessons in Grammar and composition taken in combination. The grammatical portion is one of *function*, rather than of form. Attention is focussed from the beginning on the work done by the word in the sentence, and later, on the work done by phrase and clause; and therefore analysis followed by simple parsing, on the broad lines of function is the basis of the teaching. The general method of the lessons is concentric. Each lesson includes a series of exercises in composition some of which are connected with the Grammar, while others are designed to afford practice in flexibility of language. The exercises are graduated in difficulty, and progressive in character. All kinds of composition topics have been very carefully handled. They range from reproduction, dialogue, letter writing, simple description and narrative in Part I, to complex description, imaginative work, and short essays on historical, geographical and other subjects in Part II. All topics are so selected as to enable pupils to find them interesting.

Such a good book will be found to be of real practical use to the S. S. L. C. student in the class-room.

Easy Grammar and Oral Composition Book III. By T. S. Viraraghavachari M.A., L.T. with a Foreword by Rev. Fr. F. Bertram, S. J.

This book is the third of the series and is intended for use in the third form. We consider this as a very successful attempt at combining grammar and composition, where grammar is stressed not as a series of injunctions how the language ought to be used but as an integral part of the language and chiefly concerned with the building up of sentences from their component parts in accordance with the canons of usage. This book seeks to teach the essentials of grammar by means of properly prepared assignments in the shape of exercises. These exercises when done in class will provide the necessary drill in correct speaking. The assignments are also suitable for individual work. The author and the publishers deserve to be congratulated on this very useful publication.

New Era English Readers—Second Primer (0-6-0) Book I. (0-8-0). [By M. S. Sundareswaran, M.A., L.T., and A. S. Venkataraman, B.A., L.T., Edited by H. Champion, M.A., I. E. S. Publishers. B. G. Paul & Co.]

We welcome heartily the publication of these two readers which are designed to usher in a New Era in the teaching of English. The main aim of these books, as the Editor says in his Foreword to the Second Primer is that the pupil shall be made to acquire a real command of useful words and phrases. Each new word or phrase is printed in bold type. Each lesson has at its beginning a list of new words that occur in their lesson; while the exercises at the end of each lesson are designed to help the pupils to learn to use the words and phrases correctly in familiar contexts. It is a good feature of these books that the lessons are all on topics either familiar or of immediate interest to the pupils of our presidency.

The 1st book also introduces in each lesson simple grammatical forms and the exercises at the end will help the pupils to be well acquainted with these forms. There is in the book a continuous, graduated and progressive scheme of grammar. The books are copiously illustrated, the illustrations being neat and clear. We commend these readers to the attentions of all teachers.

REPORT ON THE WORK OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, LONDON. (1932-1933)

It is gratifying to find that during the year under report Indian students in the United Kingdom have to their credit an excellent record of academic and other success. This, as observed by the commissioner testifies to the excellence of training that the students must have received in India. It was a constant complaint of the High Commissioner that many students sought admission at different educational centres of the United Kingdom without an adequate academic training in Indian universities. But in the year under report the number of such cases has considerably decreased. As many as 600 students were enrolled in the year 1932-33 at various centres in the United Kingdom, the largest numbers seeking admission at the colleges in and around London. The Education Department of the High Commissioner arranged for the admission of 409 students. Over 1600 students from India were during the year 1932-1933 studying in University colleges of Great Britain and Ireland, while the total number of foreign students is estimated to be only 2700.

The report states that many students of good academic distinction often fail to secure admission owing to the late date at which their applications are received or owing to the delay in replying to further particulars which the authorities require.

A large number of students have in the year under report gained distinctions in such subjects as Science, Engineering and Technology and it is reported that the High Commissioner's Office is flooded with requests from these students for appointments in India. An appeal is therefore made to Indian employers in all branches of Industry and Commerce and to Municipal and public authorities as well to provide more openings for the young men who have thus qualified themselves.

It is regrettable to note that a large number of students find themselves stranded in England some of whom had to be repatriated. It is folly to send young people without providing them with the finances necessary to keep them above want. It is equally unwise to send persons who are not physically strong to stand the climate. It is unfortunate that during the year 1932-1933, five cases of serious illness, one of which ended fatally came to the notice of the High Commissioner. There were three cases of mental illness while there were five cases of suicide. The probable causes for these suicides have not been given but the number is so high that those cases should be thoroughly examined.

The Education Department of the High Commissioner's Office should be congratulated on the successful administration of the department during the year under report and for the willing and ready help which the department rendered to Indian students in England and to others who asked for information.

SRI BRAHMA SAYUJYA LIBRARY PUBLICATIONS.

1. *Sanskrit-Tamil Dictionary*: This Dictionary contains more than 10,000 words in Devanagari script with their several meanings in Tamil. Grammatical peculiarities of the words as to their kinds and class are given. This is compiled just to satisfy the needs of Sanskrit students in their School and College courses from Second Form to B. A. Class. It also contains several *Loukika Nyayas* like *Kakathaliyam* and verses of usages from *Gita*, *Upanishads*, *Brahma Sutras*, *Sandya* and other Vedic Mantras. This ought to be in every Library—Personal or Public. Price Rs. 2-8. Publisher: N. E. Duraiswamy Iyengar, c/o The Manager, Sri Chennai Andal Fund Office, 109, China Bazaar Road, G. T., Madras.

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EDITORIAL

UP-TO-DATENESS

Dr. Richardson has some interesting things to say in his book on "Parenthood and Newer Psychology." There are practical hints given in different chapters and they will prove useful to parents who are keen on understanding the behaviour of their children and bringing them up on right lines. We are particularly interested in his pointed appeal to the parent-world to realise the importance of up-to-dateness in education. If he should regard the American public as slow to move in the matter of educational reform, it will be difficult to imagine how he will view the position in our presidency. He deprecates conservatism and indifference in the sphere of education and is surprised that the forward moving twentieth century American fails to notice the incongruity of the nineteenth century educational methods being still allowed to dominate schools. He feels that the remedy rests with the parents themselves and urges every one of them to see that "the school which is being run for his children by his tax contributions shall show some attempt to keep up with the march of progress." The following passage will speak for itself: "The discouraging thing about this thought is that, whereas no self-respecting man thinks of providing for his family a car of a type that would have been considered quite smart and up-to-date ten or even five years ago, many a supposedly wide awake man to-day is perfectly satisfied to give his son or his daughter an education whose model was definitely *passee twice that number of years ago*. . . . 'Oh the public school was good enough for me; and I guess it is good enough for my boy.' Is the type of illumination used then good enough for your son? Is the kind of transportation good enough? Is education to stand still while every other phase of life gallops ahead of it in this twentieth century of progress? What are we to do about it—be satisfied or get something modern in the way of education?"

CHAMPION SCHEME

We publish elsewhere a letter from our correspondent which seeks to point out the advisability of giving effect to the Champion scheme. It is not for us to deal with all the points raised in this letter once again. The principle of consolidation may be acceptable in the abstract and we do not deny that there are some good points in the scheme. But our opposition to the scheme rests on broad grounds of educational policy. Even the advocates of the consolidation scheme should admit that there is still a vast scope for the expansion of Elementary education. How can anyone support a scheme wholeheartedly when it is sure to affect further expansion? We fail to see why efficiency and expansion should be treated as antithetic? The cry of economy in official reports is very misleading. Anyone who has any acquaintance with the history of the development of education in our presidency will never be impressed with this slogan of *economy*. No programme of Elementary education will commend itself to the public so long as it rules out expansion on the plea of efficiency. The public expects the department to come out with a scheme which will provide for efficient expansion of Elementary education with due regard to economy. The salaries paid to teachers in Elementary schools and the grants allowed in the code can never be regarded as satisfactory and yet we hear constantly of economy. We feel that no case has been made out for the introduction of a presidency-wide scheme of consolidation.

It is our feeling that the existing rules are adequate for weeding out inefficient schools and preventing overlapping. The single-teacher schools which are condemned have yet a part to play. Several of them have a good record of work to their credit. A single larger school may not after all be economical in the long run and its efficiency cannot be taken for granted. The scheme is not finding favour chiefly because it leaves certain important allied questions severely alone. For instance, there is the question of the distance to be traversed by the pupil who is to attend a central school. We are sorry that our correspondent under-rates this inconvenience to the child. In other countries where senior central schools have been organised in rural areas, it has been found necessary to provide for means of adequate transport. There is no reference to this aspect of the question in the Champion scheme. In the absence of a provision for compulsion, the pupils of junior schools will not think of joining the Central school and consequently they will be deprived of the opportunities for further study now existing in single teacher schools. The wastage will not, therefore, be reduced as is imagined by the advocates of the scheme. Mr. Statham has, in his Report on the Development of Elementary Education, mentioned, among other things, this idea of consolidation, but he has taken care to show that for any constructive programme the officers should prepare (a) a list of unnecessary schools; (b) a list of ineffective schools; (c) a statement of the additional staff required to make the schools under (b) efficient; (d) a statement of the buildings and equipment required for all the Elementary schools which are to be retained; (e) an estimate of the cost of (c) and (d). If these facts be gathered and made available, it will be easy for the public to see whether it is really necessary to cry halt to expansion as is constantly suggested in official reports and whether a scheme of consolidation with modifications, if any, has become necessary.

WHAT NEXT?

Our friends in High schools do not look quite happy just now. The *eligible list* is out and it is disappointing. Even schools that have been uniformly standing high in respect of the public examination feel that the results could have been better. The publication of the eligible list has, for the time being, stirred the teachers as well as the management. It will not do for the management to throw the blame on the staff. Nor will it be proper for teachers to explain away the unsatisfactory nature of the results. In these days of scientific investigation, the results of the public examination should not form the object of comparison of one institution with another on account of mere curiosity; they should be studied more carefully so that their implications may be rightly understood. "What is wrong with our Secondary education?" is what the teacher and the management should be impelled to ask themselves. There are certain points that readily suggest themselves for consideration when one looks at the eligible list. How is it that one school shows a good percentage of passes while some other schools stand low in the list? What is there in a certain school which enables it to hold a high place uniformly a number of years? Such questions can be answered satisfactorily only when the coefficient of correlation between the result and the different factors responsible for efficiency is carefully determined. Even a cursory glance at the eligible list may show a correlation between efficiency and the locality in which the school is situated. It is also possible to perceive a correlation between efficiency and the home environment and the traditional atmosphere. It will be interesting to see what the situation will be if Physical Training or Manual Training be one of the subjects for eligibility.

Under the present system a large number of pupils drawn from different strata of society and accustomed to different home traditions are all subjected to one uniform literary test. Students who are not accustomed to a literary tradition at home will be certainly handicapped and it is not fair that they should be condemned as unfit. We wish that the public examination results be examined along with the results of the class examination in all their bearings so that light may be thrown on the problem of the innate capacity of the different pupils. As has been clearly pointed out by Dr. Norwood in his article on "The Secondary Schools" published in "The Schools at Work" issued by the National Union of Teachers, the task of the Secondary school has become wider than what it has been thought to be. It has become all the more necessary to examine whether the course of studies in a Secondary school is diversified enough to provide for different needs and aptitudes. The question for consideration is whether the traditional type of education suited for the literary classes should form exclusively the basis for judging the capacity of all pupils. The rapid changes that are taking place in the modern society point to the wisdom of a change in the outlook and this has been clearly emphasised by Dr. W. F. Russell in his lecture on "Education" delivered at Columbia University on the occasion of the one hundred and seventy-fifth Anniversary: "When society asks the school to open its doors to all, and demands that each child be developed to the limit of his possibilities, then the schoolmaster deals not only with Park Avenue and Beacon Hill; he looks to the East Side and the prairies as well." He points out that higher education was till recently the privilege of the favoured classes and that this system must necessarily fail when the school throws open its doors to all. He thinks it necessary that the authorities and teachers should be able to readjust completely the system of education so that the school "may do for all what good fortune and the ruling classes did for the few." We hope that teachers' associations and teachers will examine the examination statistics on their own merits free from any preoccupied bias and suggest a way of *readjustment*.

THE SCHOOLS AT WORK

We congratulate the National Union of Teachers on their successful attempt to inform the public in a very graphic manner what the schools are doing for the children. Popular opinion about schools is never appreciative of what is being done in schools and it is largely due to a misconception of how schools have progressed and what improvements have been effected in school technique, etc. To the citizen the school is the old school of his days. Such a misconception is the chief cause of the general apathy of the public towards school reforms and educational needs. It is the duty of school authorities to give publicity to what is being done by the profession in the nation's schools and colleges. Till school authorities combine in such an educational publicity, organisations of teachers must take up the work. Teachers in America realising the importance of such publicity are organising every year the American Education Week. In South India also we feel more keenly the necessity for such a publicity especially when retrenchment and cuts have become the fashion. The South India Teachers' Union has rightly come forward with its programme of an "Education Week," the celebration of which has become an annual feature. Now the National Union of Teachers has issued this finely illustrated brochure. It is undoubtedly the best attempt to inform the ordinary voter of the multifarious activities of teachers and children in the schools in England to-day.

The book is published for the N. U. T. by the enterprising firm of Messrs. Evans Brothers, Ltd. It is favoured with a foreword by Lord Halifax—the President of the Board of Education. The Rt. Hon'ble H. A. L. Fisher writes on 'Elementary Education'; Dr. Cyril Norwood on 'Secondary Education'; and Lord Eustace Percy on 'Technical Schools.' Sir Henry Richard contributes the note on 'Schools: The Nation's Social Centres,' while Sir Frederick Menzies writes an interesting account on the marvellous changes brought about by the School Medical Service. These occupy only 11 pages. The remaining 50 and odd pages contain an array of pictures—contrasts between schools of to-day and of fifty years ago followed by a series of pictures on life in junior schools, senior schools, central schools, secondary schools, technical schools, nursery schools, school journeys, technical colleges, and the schools of health service and education of defective children. Undoubtedly it is the best answer to the critic of the schools. We commend its perusal by all teachers and school authorities as in our opinion a glance over its pages will supply the necessary stimulus and incentive for more sustained work in our schools. A copy is kept in the Guild library and members of the Union are requested to peruse the volume. (The price of the book is 2sh. 4½d.)

THE TENTH QUINQUENNIAL REVIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA, 1927-32.

Sir George Anderson's report on the progress of education in India for the quinquennium ending 1932 contains a clear and interesting presentation of the various educational problems of our country. It is instructive and thought provoking. We may not agree with some of the conclusions drawn and the solutions offered but it is due to Sir Anderson to say that he has courageously tackled the problems and has made constructive suggestions well worth the consideration of all those interested in the progress of Indian education.

IS IT WISE ECONOMY?

One of the main features of the period under review brought into prominence in the report, is that the pace of expansion has been retarded by economic distress and the policy of retrenchment. Sir Anderson's own words are worth quoting, "Though there are signs of improvement in certain directions, it is none-the-less difficult to find in the provincial reports a reasoned account of the principles which should have guided a policy of retrenchment. In a spirit almost of panic, wholesale reductions have been made by rule-of-thumb methods and by percentage reductions with the result that good and bad together have been thrown indiscriminately into the abyss. A well-directed policy of retrenchment would have resulted in cutting away of the dead wood and ineffective expenditure, which have hitherto obstructed the salutary and economical growth of education." During the first four years of the quinquennium there was a uniform rate of increase of about 2,000 in the number of institutions but in the fifth year there was a sudden decrease from 262,068 to 257,792. Such abruptness of the decline suggests that the measure of consolidation was dictated by financial necessity rather than by any premeditated change of policy. Prominently mentioned among the signs of improvement are a slight increase in the number of pupils enrolled in Primary schools and a small percentage of increase in the average attendance. On the basis of these signs the conclusion is drawn, that though there was a quantitative set back, in many provinces the Primary system has been replaced on a more effective and economical foundation than that which obtained five years ago. But we are inclined to attribute these hopeful signs more to the fact

that compulsion was in force in 153 urban and 3,392 rural areas than to the policy of consolidation, for it is improbable that boys in rural areas where schools were closed down, would have resorted to neighbouring village schools. Just as an increase in the number of institutions is not necessarily a sign of healthy and economical progress, the mere decrease unaccompanied by satisfactory evidence of progress cannot be taken as a sign of improvement.

One of the most urgent problems of Primary education has been the improvement of the staffing conditions. The percentage of men teachers possessing higher general qualifications than the passing of the Primary stage is as low as 30.4. Nearly 50% of the teachers in boys' Primary schools are untrained. But as the report says, "Financial stringency has borne heavily on training institutions but retrenchment in this direction is an incentive to waste."

UNIVERSITY—THE PLEA FOR A FEDERAL TYPE

There are now in India eight Universities which are of the affiliating type and ten which are more or less of the unitary type. The number is by no means too large for so vast a country as India. But the report conveys the impression that India is heading towards a University system which will be beyond her means. "India should have a University system which will promote higher learning and research, which will provide suitable training for her young men and women which above all will be within her means." (P. 78.)

The implications of this remark are significant. Further down is the following observation, "It is not in the best interests of India that so many students of capacity should become specialists in the strict sense of the word. What India needs to-day and will need still more in the immediate future is a number of men and women who have been well grounded in general subjects and possess width of knowledge which is essential either as a preparation for public life or for a special study at a later stage."

The suggestion that India should evolve a university system which will be within her means, only tempts us to speculate on the resources that would have been made available for education, if only this wise principle of 'living within one's means' had been followed in respect of other services!

If, as is advised, colleges should limit themselves to preparing their alumni to public life or giving them just what is necessary to stimulate further study instead of making them specialists in some branch of knowledge or other, they would only be glorified Secondary schools.

It is observed that there is a deplorable tendency for each university to attempt a wider field of activity than its financial circumstances permit and that there are signs of extravagant duplication and overlapping between universities. The cure suggested for these and other such ills is the conversion of existing universities into a federal type. One of the fundamental things necessary for realising the federal ideal is that, while the University should be prepared to admit the colleges as such into partnership in its governance, the colleges should be prepared to surrender to the university an effective measure of control.

Sir Anderson holds very strong views in respect of University control. But on the question of restricting the freedom of colleges there is bound to be a wide divergence of opinion. We believe that most of the defects of the present system may be remedied by suitable advice being given by such an expert body as the Inter-University Board.

**THE NEED FOR A RE-ADJUSTMENT OF SCHOOL COURSES ON THE BASIS OF
DEFINITE STAGES OF EDUCATION**

The drift to college and unemployment have deepened in the quinquennium. The results of the drift are :—Rural areas are impoverished ; the towns are faced by an ever increasing middle class unemployment ; High Schools and Colleges are overcrowded by masses of pupils who seem to have no aptitude for literary education. Lack of definite stages of education each with a unity of aim and objective is, in great part, responsible for the presence of an appreciable number of under-aged boys in the university and over-aged pupils in the secondary school course. The percentage of over-aged pupils for British India is nearly 60% while for Madras it is nearly 57%. The problem therefore arises to check the drift of pupils having no literacy bent firstly from rural parts to urban areas and secondly from secondary to university and thereby relieve the congestion in urban High Schools and Colleges. The report emphasises the need for a readjustment of courses on the basis of definite stages of education, each complete in itself as a preliminary step for successfully diverting pupils to different types of schools.

Rural schools, vernacular middle and secondary, are to be of a distinctly different type from urban schools so that the present tendency for their urbanization may be effectively checked. The proposal for a re-grouping of the stages of education may be summed up thus :—

(1) That a primary course of sufficient length (5 years) should provide the means of attaining literacy and the rudiments of learning for the masses.

(2) That secondary schools must consist of two courses (a) a secondary course of a shorter duration than that of the present matriculation, whose object should be to provide a general education complete in itself and untrammelled by University requirements. The end of this stage is to be marked by an examination which would be a clearing house for those requiring further preparation for admission to a University as well as for those who would be diverted to vocational training. (b) A higher secondary course whose object should be not only to give more substantial general education but definitely prepare pupils for University. The establishment of this type of school would remedy the evil of a biennial examination in the University, where after three years' course candidates would be taking the degree examination.

We commend the proposal to the earnest attention of our readers. The resolution of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, on the practical means for the examination of the knowledge acquired in primary schools and the practical ways of selection to promote children from primary schools to different higher courses, is extracted elsewhere for the benefit of those interested in the subject.

The points that would emerge for discussion from a consideration of the proposal for a readjustment of courses may be briefly stated thus :—
(1) The length of each successive stage of education and the definition of the aims and objectives of each stage. (2) The stage and the age of pupils at which they should be diverted for purely vocational or literary pursuits and the practical methods by which it should be done. (3) The place of the vocational training in a general scheme of education, the exact nature of the courses to be given and the practical ways of helping candidates to secure

jobs in the various vocations open to them in the country. (4) In the event of the establishment of higher secondary schools the relative claims of the Government and University in the matter of controlling their courses, examination and inspection.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

The increase in the number of boys in primary schools, in the quinquennium under review, was only 6,169 as against that of 25,229 in the previous quinquennium. Madras shows an increase of 303 boys' primary schools as against one of 12,754 in the previous quinquennium. Although at first sight this is disappointing, the report views it with optimism as there was an increase in the number of pupils enrolled. The decrease in the number of institutions since 1930 is reported to have been due to the financial stringency and also to the policy in favour of redistribution of schools.

The position needs much more improvement before any optimistic view can be taken. The percentage of male population of school going age, receiving instruction in the primary stage for British India was only 42.2 as against 42.1 in the previous quinquennium. This increase is pitifully small. Nearly five-sixths of the total number of pupils in Indian schools are in the primary classes, roughly half of these being in class I. Out of every hundred boys that were enrolled in class I in 1927-1928 only 13 reached class V in 1931-1932, the figure for Madras being so distressingly low as 11. It will thus be seen that the development of primary education is still disfigured by an alarming wastage. Stagnation and irregular attendance have also tended to limit the spread of literacy.

We shall not now enter into the painful details of the contributory causes for this sad state of affairs. But in attempting to solve the problems of primary education, lamentation over the shortage of funds is, as the review pertinently observes, out of place; what is required is a firm determination to grapple with the difficulties; direct action has to be taken in due recognition of the principle that an efficient system of compulsion is an economy. Although Madras ranks high among British provinces in the development of education, the high percentage of overage boys (27) to the total number of pupils in the primary stage, among other things, points to the fact that compulsion is less developed here than in many other provinces. The one and only cure for the defects of the primary system is *Effective Compulsion*. The problem of primary education needs no restatement; of investigation and advice from commissions and committees we have had enough. Schemes for compulsion with their financial implications have presented no difficulty in framing. But the thing that has long been deferred is that of making Elementary education the prime charge on the provincial revenues. No useful scheme can be worked unless at least 20% of the provincial revenues is set apart for Education. Unfortunately the retrenchment axe has often more easily tried its sharpness on the wood-frame of education than on the steel-frame of other departments. But our country has, at present, reached a stage at which expenditure on education can no longer be deferred nor further retrenchment made without disastrous results.

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